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GENEALOGICAL TABLES OF ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS AND THEIR FAMILIES.

THE

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FROM THE

Earliest Period to the Present Time.

ADAPTED TO YOUTH, SCHOOLS, AND FAMILIES.

BY MISS CORNER,

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ENGLAND AND WALES,—DENMARK, SWEDEN, AND NORWAY,—GERMANY,
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HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.—EVERY CHILD'S HISTORY
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WITH CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE; PICTORIAL GENEALOGY OF THE MONARCHS OF ENGLAND, AND ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS; MAP OF ENGLAND AND WALES; AND STEEL-PLATE ENGRAVINGS.

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PREFACE

TO THE FIFTY-FIFTH THOUSAND.

THE sale of Fifty-four thousand copies of this volume of the HISTORICAL LIBRARY, encouraged the publishers to increase its size and its attractiveness, without increasing its cost to the public.

Ten eventful years having elapsed since any alteration was made in this work, the History from page 297 has been entirely re-written, in order to give as much information as possible, without adding unnecessarily to the bulk of the book.

In the part re-written, each subject has been kept distinct and summarised. Most teachers will agree that it is injudicious to treat on the recent events in the same manner as on those which, for a generation at the least, have been ably reviewed in their various bearings.

"The Pictorial Genealogy of the Monarchs of England, from the Conquest to the Present Time, with Graphic Illustrations of Remarkable Events," will, it is believed, add materially to the attractiveness of the work. It is so arranged, that it can be separated from the book and formed into a useful historical tablet for the schoolroom or study.

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PREFACE

TO THE SIXTY-FIRST THOUSAND.

THE Publishers have the pleasure to announce that they have again improved and enlarged this well-received work.

This edition is printed from new stereotype plates; so that typographical defects have been corrected. The Chronological Table has been carefully revised and considerably extended.

A most important addition has also been made. Genealogical Tables are usually complicated, dry, and uninteresting to young persons. Committing them to memory is entirely out of the question. The Genealogical Tables, now first published in this work, and compiled expressly for it, are so simple in arrangement, that any intelligent child may not only comprehend them, but also may easily commit them to memory in a short time.

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THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE love of our native land is a natural and an amiable feeling, which spreads an interest around every circumstance or object connected with it, and makes us delight in the history of those olden times which present to our minds a true picture of our forefathers, and render us familiar with the habits and manners of those who have occupied, before us, the place we now fill, and which, in ages to come, may perhaps be the abode of a race as different from us as we are from the rude people who inhabited this island two thousand years ago. It is pleasant to trace the gradual progress of society in our own country, from the ignorance of savage life to the high degree of knowledge and refinement that distinguishes the English of the present day; to see how the arts found their way, by degrees, among our once uncivilised ancestors, and how each succeeding generation became more enlightened than that which had preceded it.

Long before the invasion of the Romans, the British islands were known to the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, who were in the habit of sending out ships every year to trade with the natives, to whom they carried a variety of articles, both for ornament and use, such as gold chains and bracelets, amber drinking cups, mirrors of polished metal, bronze vessels of various descriptions, and bridles for their horses; in exchange for which, they received tin, copper,

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lead, dogs, horses, and slaves; for it was the custom of many nations at that period to sell their prisoners into slavery. The tin mines of Cornwall appear to have been then very productive, although the Britons did not know how to work them far below the surface of the earth; and this metal was so highly valued by the ancients, that the merchants of Phœnicia and Carthage would not divulge whence they obtained it, so anxious were they to keep the trade to themselves.

It seems that the Gauls also carried on a commercial intercourse with the natives of Britain, who supplied them with corn as well as metals, in return for salt and earthenware. The wary Britons, not being fond of admitting strangers into the heart of the country, transacted most of their business in the Isle of Wight, which was like a perpetual fair. They conveyed their goods, in carts drawn by oxen, to the coast opposite the island, and crossed over in wicker boats covered with leather, which was the common mode of constructing vessels among the northern nations before they had learned the art of ship-building. The foreign merchants landed on the other side of the island, and when they had made their bargains, they set sail again, without touching the mainland.

The constant traffic between the Gauls and their opposite neighbours probably attracted the attention of Julius Cæsar, and led him to attempt the conquest of Britain, after he had achieved that of Gaul; and it is from the writings of that great commander that the earliest detailed accounts are to be obtained of the condition of the country and its inhabitants previous to the Christian era.

In habits, manners, religion, and government, the Britons in the south of the island were so like the Gauls, that it is supposed they were originally the same people; which does not seem unlikely, when we consider how easy it was to pass from one country to the other, and that out of the

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numerous tribes which overspread the territories of Gaul, some of them might, at different times, and from various causes, have emigrated to the opposite shore.

Again, we are told that the people in the north of Britain were far less civilised than those of the south; that they were clothed in skins, and seldom had a fixed place of abode; from which we might almost conclude that the immigrant Gauls conquered a part of the original inhabitants, and drove them into the north of the island, while they took possession of the south, where they formed many separate communities, erected dwellings, kept flocks and herds, and attended to the cultivation of the land.

We sometimes read of the towns of the Britons; but a British town in those days was very different from what would be understood by the word "town" now—being merely a collection of rude huts, built in a wood or forest, around which a ditch was generally dug, as a fortification. The furniture was as rough as the dwelling: skins spread on the floor served for beds and blankets, and blocks of wood for seats; the fire was made in the middle of the apartment: and around the walls were ranged the weapons of the family.

The Britons were acquainted with other arts besides that of husbandry, for they wore handsome dresses of their own manufacture, made of cloth dyed of various colours; therefore it is clear that they knew how to dye wool: and as the tunics of the chiefs were often embroidered, the women must have been skilled in needle-work, as well as in spinning and weaving. Their mantles were usually either blue or black, but the vests and trousers were of many colours, and they wore round their necks, chains, either of iron, brass, or gold, according to the rank of the wearer.

The war chariots used in Britain were of various forms and sizes, some of them exceedingly elegant, and some of a very rough description: but they were usually made to

contain two warriors, besides the charioteer, and were so constructed that they could be driven at full speed across the roughest country. To each of the axles was attached a sharp scythe, which, as the chariots dashed through the ranks of the enemy, cut down the soldiers on each side in a most terrific manner. Besides these chariots for war, they had others for convenience, probably for the accommodation of females, who seem to have been treated with much respect among the Britons, since kings and queens reigned indifferently, and with equal authority, over the several nations into which the country was divided.

I must not close this chapter without giving a brief notice of the Druids, who held so important a place in society in ancient times, and whose customs and superstitions are not even yet wholly extinct. These remarkable men were of three orders, Druids, Vates, and Bards. The first regulated the laws and religion of the country; the second seem to have been engaged chiefly in the instruction of youth; and the third were musicians and poets, who composed verses, and sang the heroic deeds of great warriors. There was a high priest called the Arch-druid, whose residence is supposed to have been in the Isle of Mona, now Anglesey, where all the most solemn rites were performed amid dark groves of oak trees, or in temples formed by circles of huge stones. Here, dreadful to relate, they sacrificed to the heathen gods numbers of human beings, some of whom were prisoners taken in war; others, criminals condemned to death for their offences: and all these miserable victims were burned, with other offerings, in large wicker cages, before the altar.

The power of the Druids over the people was far greater than that possessed by the princes, not one of whom dared to dispute their decrees, as those who were bold enough to do so, were forbidden to attend the sacrifices, a punishment similar to the Catholic sentence of excommunication, as the

offender was, in like manner, cut off from all society, and shunned with horror by his most intimate friends.

Some of the ancient writers say that the Druids were believed to have been skilled in magic, and their costume was calculated to strengthen this belief among a race of ignorant barbarians, whose minds were easily impressed by outward appearances. Their white robes, long beards, and more especially their mystic rites and the wands they carried, might well make them pass for magicians in that unenlightened age. Every priest wore suspended from his neck, a large glass bead or globe, called a serpent's egg, enclosed in gold, as a charm against evil; and they taught many superstitions concerning serpents, rivers, trees, fire, and other things that they held sacred. But their principal object of veneration was the mistletoe, when it was found growing on the oak; and of all the religious festivals held in Britain, that of cutting this plant on New-year's-day, was the most solemn. On this occasion, the Druids walked in procession, habited in their robes of ceremony, towards the oak on which the plant was growing, and one of them ascending the tree, cut the mistletoe with a golden knife, while another stood below to catch the boughs in the folds of his garment as they fell. Two milk-white bulls were then sacrificed, and, the religious ceremonies being ended, were followed by great feastings and rejoicings

There were three annual festivals, besides that on New-year's-day; one was held on the 1st of May, to pray that the fruits of the earth might prosper; another on Midsummer eve, to beg a blessing on the corn then ready for reaping; and the last, in October, was to give thanks for the harvest that had been gathered in. Sacrifices, feastings, songs, and music, constituted the chief part of their fêtes; but one invariable mode of testifying joy on such occasions was, that of lighting large fires, and carrying flaming torches about the fields; and thus we may trace in the bonfires,

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illuminations, and fireworks of our own times, but more particularly in the fêtes still kept up on May-day and Midsummer-eve in many English villages, the remains of ancient Druidism.

THE ROMAN CONQUEST.

It was about fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, that Julius Cæsar sailed from the coast of Gaul, and landed his troops near the cliffs of Dover. The Britons had been warned of this invasion by some merchants of Gaul, and were quite prepared for the arrival of the enemy, many of the Island chiefs being assembled on the sea shore, with their bands of brave warriors, their formidable chariots, and fine horses, so well trained to war.

Cæsar had not expected such an opposition as he afterwards encountered; and as some of his galleys had been kept back by contrary winds, he was deficient of troops, and short of provisions; nor was it easy to obtain a supply of the latter, for the Britons had just gathered in their harvest, and their cattle were defended in the woods by barriers not easy to be broken through. Still the invaders were foes to be dreaded; and the British chiefs, after one month of hard fighting, were glad to make peace; agreeing to pay an annual tribute to the Romans.

The next year, Cæsar made another attempt to conquer the Britons, and on this occasion, he stayed four months in the island, which enabled him to obtain an insight into the habits and manners of the people; and being a learned man, as well as a great conqueror, he wrote accounts of all the countries he visited, and among the rest, of Britain; which writings are still in existence. Finding, at length, that the

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Britons were not easily to be subdued, and his own presence being required elsewhere, Cæsar consented again to make peace, on condition that the British kings should continue to pay tribute to the Romans, to which they agreed; but it is believed they did not perform their promise very faithfully.

About one hundred years after this invasion, Claudius, emperor of Rome, achieved the conquest that had been vainly attempted by Julius Cæsar, and the Britons, after a long and brave resistance, were obliged to surrender the sovereignty of their country to the Romans, who were already masters of Spain, Gaul, and a great part of Germany.

The Romans fought not for the purpose of destroying the natives, or reducing them to slavery; their objects being to increase their dominion, to establish the Roman laws and government wherever they came, and to civilize the states they conquered. It is true that the Britons, at first, were grievously burdened by the taxes imposed upon them by the Romans, but their country was speedily improved by that people, who formed good roads, handsome towns, and elegant buildings of every description. The roads of the Romans were among their finest and most lasting works, and some of our best highways were made by them, which must have been a great labour, as they had to cut down forests, to drain marshes, to throw up embankments, construct causeways, to build bridges, and to work, in many places, through a rough, uneven country. But the Roman soldiers were skilled in more arts than that of war, and, when not engaged in actual warfare, employed themselves as builders and engineers, usually, no doubt, compelling the natives to assist in the hardest part of the labour.

About fifty years after the birth of Christ, the Romans built and fortified the city of London, which they called Augusta, on the ground between Ludgate-hill, St. Paul's, Cheapside, and the Thames. The houses were built of

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wood; and it was then a colony of soldiers, with their wives and families, and also the residence of a great number of provision merchants, and dealers in various kinds of stores.

Many of the Roman towns were military stations, but others also were inhabited by Britons as well as Romans, who all enjoyed equal rights as Roman citizens, and had the power of choosing their own magistrates; yet in the early days of the Roman dominion, the Britons suffered great oppressions from the governors and officers appointed to collect the taxes, which occasioned a general and terrible revolt, headed by the celebrated heroine, Boadicea, queen of a province that had not yet wholly submitted to the conquerors; but after many Roman settlements, amongst which was London, had been destroyed, with their inhabitants, men, women and children, the Britons sustained a total defeat, in a pitched battle; and the courageous woman who had made this effort to restore her country to liberty, put an end to her own existence.

In the mean time, what had become of the Druids? They and their temples had all disappeared; their religion existed no longer, and if any of the priests survived, they had fled for shelter to Ireland or Scotland. It is, however, quite uncertain when the Christian religion was first known in England, for the Romans were, for a long time, pagans; and where the cathedral of St. Paul now stands, there was a magnificent pagan temple, dedicated to Diana; but as Christianity was preached in Rome long before it was heard of in Britain, it is supposed that, among the many families that came to settle here, and even among the soldiers, there were some who had adopted the Christian faith, and whose opinions, being communicated to others, made more converts. By degrees, churches arose, bishops were appointed, and, at length, Christianity became the general religion of the country.

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The Britons were at last quite reconciled to the Roman government, and for three hundred years enjoyed a high degree of prosperity and civilisation; but their peace was frequently disturbed by the invasions of the Picts and Scots from the northern part of the island, which was never entirely subdued by the Romans, and consequently remained in its original state of barbarism, and was known by the name of Caledonia. To keep off these intruders, who frequently entered the southern provinces, setting fire to the villages, and carrying away the cattle and inhabitants, Agricola, a Roman governor, built a line of forts quite across their country, which he kept strongly guarded; but this being found insufficient, some of the Roman emperors who visited Britain, constructed other barriers, one of which was the famous stone wall, called the Wall of Severus, parts of which are still to be seen in some of the northern counties of England.

Among the many useful and elegant arts brought into Britain by the Romans, was that of gardening, which they carried to great perfection; and they not only formed ornamental gardens, but planted orchards with fruit-trees from the countries of Asia, and even vineyards, with vines from Gaul; whence they also procured many plants and vegetables, till then unknown in Britain.

The Britons had so much corn at this time, that they were able to supply the garrisons in Germany, and to send large quantities into Gaul. Water-mills for grinding corn were first erected in the time of the Romans; but wind-mills were not known till long afterwards, as they were introduced, it is supposed, by the Crusaders, from the East.

Money was coined in Britain at a very early period of the Roman dominion, as we know by old coins now and then discovered buried in the earth. Wine, too, was made from the produce of the vineyards, but most probably not in large quantities, ale being the common drink of the people.

At length, the Roman emperors found it necessary to withdraw their troops from Britain to defend Rome itself from the numerous enemies that threatened its destruction; and soon afterwards, they gave up their authority over the Britons, whom they had ruled for nearly four centuries, telling them that they were freed from all allegiance and all tribute, but that they must in future provide for their own safety.

The recovery of their ancient freedom gave no joy to the natives of Britain, who had long been accustomed to regard the Romans as their friends and protectors. They had lived in ease and plenty under good laws, while the arms of their warlike rulers had been their safeguard from the invasions of ruder nations; therefore they saw but little advantage in regaining that independence for which their ancestors had fought so long and so bravely.

THE SAXON CONQUEST.

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THE termination of the Roman government in South Britain gave great satisfaction to the fierce natives of Caledonia, who soon forced a passage through the northern wall, and laid waste the neighbouring country, without opposition. The unhappy Britons, unable to resist the ravages of these bold invaders, called together a council of their chieftains, who resolved to apply for aid to the Saxons, a people of Germany, who were held in great renown for their warlike exploits. At the request of Vortigern, king or chief of the British princes, a body of Saxons, consisting of fifteen hundred men, headed by two chiefs, named Hengist and Horsa, who were brothers, having landed in Kent, hastened to join the British warriors. The Picts and the Scots, who had advanced into the

heart of the country, were attacked by the combined army, and totally defeated.

The Saxons, elated with their success, and charmed with the fertility of the country, invited over many of their countrymen to become partakers of their good fortune. Seventeen vessels therefore arrived, conveying no less than five thousand individuals, some of them females, amongst whom was the beautiful Rowena, who became queen of Britain. This young lady was the daughter of Hengist, one of the Saxon chiefs; and it is related that, on her arrival, her father gave an entertainment to Vortigern, at which Rowena was present; when, kneeling before the monarch, she presented to him a cup of wine, saying some words in Saxon, which meant, "Dear king, your health." It is further said, that the graceful manner in which she performed this action, so charmed the king, that he married her, and made her father king of Kent, which was the first kingdom of the Saxon heptarchy.

Quarrels soon took place between the Saxons and the Britons, and long and terrible wars ensued; the Saxons being resolved to make themselves masters of the country, while the Britons were determined to defend it to the last extremity, Many great chiefs distinguished themselves on both sides, amongst whom was the renowned British prince, King Arthur, whose glorious deeds were long celebrated in the songs of the Welsh bards. The inhabitants of Wales were but little known at that period, for the mountainous nature of their country rendered it difficult of access, and enabled them to defend themselves against invasion. Wales, therefore, became a place of refuge for numbers of the unhappy Britons during the Saxon wars; while others went over to Gaul, to fight against the Visigoths, and settled in the provinces which derived from them the name of Brittany.

The struggle between the natives of Britain and the Saxon invaders, lasted upwards of one hundred and fifty years,

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during which, all traces of Roman civilization were destroyed, and new kingdoms were founded by several great Saxon chiefs, each of whom established himself and his followers in that part of the island which he had conquered; so that at the conclusion of the war there were seven separate states, and seven kings; and these kingdoms together were called "The Saxon Heptarchy," meaning a government conducted by seven persons.

The first kingdom of the Heptarchy was Kent, given by Vortigern to Hengist, his father-in-law, who made a very ungrateful return for the favour, by heading his countrymen in their first attack upon the Britons; and he is even accused, though we know not with what truth, of inviting the king, with many of his nobles, to a banquet, and causing the latter to be murdered in the midst of the entertainment.

The second kingdom was that of the South Saxons, or Sussex; the third, the west Saxons, or Wessex; comprising all the country from Somerset to Berkshire inclusive; the fourth was Essex, or the kingdom of the East Saxons; the fifth, Northumbria; the sixth, which included Suffolk, Norfolk, and Cambridge, was called East Anglia; Mercia, which occupied the middle of the island, was the seventh kingdom, established by Crida, chief of the Angles, a tribe from whom the name of England was derived; Northumbria was also colonized by the Angles.

The Heptarchy lasted about two hundred and fifty years, during which a succession of kings reigned in each kingdom; and, as may naturally be supposed, many quarrels occurred amongst them, which led to frequent warfare; but as these disputes are of little importance as regards the general history of the country, I shall only mention a few of the most material facts that distinguished this period.

The great Saxon chiefs, whose conquests had enabled them to establish kingdoms, and take upon themselves the title of kings, gained, in addition to the lands they had

conquered, a number of British captives, who became bondmen, or slaves. The land was parcelled out among the most noble of their followers, according to their rank and services, and these nobles made smaller grants to their dependents, each grant being accompanied by a sufficient number of bondmen to till the ground, according to the usages of the Germans, which were quite different from those of the Romans, who made subjects, not slaves, of the conquered people.

When the Saxons first arrived in Britain they were Pagans, and so they continued till some time after the establishment of the seven kingdoms, when a monk, named Augustine, came from Rome, with forty missionaries, and Christianity was again preached among the heathens. Ethelbert, king of Kent, was the first royal convert, and his example being followed by other monarchs, the light of religion again beamed over the country.

St. Augustine was the first archbishop of Canterbury; and soon after his appointment to this high dignity, the abbey of Westminster was founded by Sebert, king of the East Saxons; and the first stone church in England was erected at York.

The progress of Christianity in this country was much the same as in the other parts of the world. Churches and monasteries were founded by the rich; while people of all ranks and both sexes eagerly embraced a religious life, and vied with each other in showing their devotion, by making pilgrimages and giving lands and money to the church. The tax called Peter-pence, so long paid by the people of England to the Pope, was established in consequence of a pilgrimage performed to Rome by Ina, king of the West Saxons, whose original object was to maintain an English school in that city.

When Charlemagne was emperor of the West, there was a powerful king reigning in Mercia, called 'Offa, the Terrible,'

because he had extended his dominions by conquests over all his neighbours. This prince built a magnificent palace at Tamworth, where he held his court; and so proud was he, that he caused trumpets to be sounded before him to announce his approach. He was a dreadful foe to the Welsh, whom he confined to their own territories, by digging a great ditch along the frontier of Wales, part of which still remains, and bears the name of Offa's Dyke.

Offa had a daughter, a proud princess, named Eadburgha, whose disposition partook more of her father's ferocity than of the gentleness becoming a woman. It happened that the throne of Wessex was, at this time, in the possession of a chief who had no right to it, and that Egbert, the lawful prince, had sought refuge at Offa's court, where he, at first, found protection; but the usurper, wishing to gain the favour of the Mercian king, sent to solicit the hand of the princess Eadburgha in marriage, at the same time demanding the head of the young Prince Egbert. Offa was not so cruel and treacherous as to comply with his demand; but as he consented to the marriage, he could not very well continue to support the pretensions of Egbert, who went over to France, in the hope of interesting the emperor Charlemagne in his cause.

Meanwhile, Offa's daughter proved a bad queen, and was hated by every body, especially by the nobles attached to the court; several of whom died so suddenly, that most people suspected they had been poisoned by this wicked woman, in revenge for the dislike they entertained towards her.

At last, the king himself died in the same mysterious manner; and then the queen was banished in disgrace from the kingdom, when she also fled to the court of Charlemagne, which seems to have been a refuge for all who were in distress. But the emperor, kind and good as he was, and willing to shelter the unfortunate, was no friend to the guilty,

therefore he would not receive Eadburgha as a guest, but placed her in a convent, where she behaved so ill, that the nuns could not permit her to remain among them. Some years afterwards, a wretched creature was observed asking charity in the streets of a town in Italy. It was the daughter of the mighty Offa—the once proud queen of the West Saxons.

In the meantime, Egbert served in the armies of Charlemagne, and gained much knowledge at the court of that great monarch, so that his name became renowned; and he was, at length, invited to England; where his arms were so successful, that he not only united most of the kingdoms into one, but made the rest dependent on him; so that, although there were still several nominal kings, Egbert was, in fact, master of the whole country; therefore, he is sometimes called the first monarch of all England, which is not quite correct, as there were tributary princes in various parts of the country, even after the time of Alfred the Great. However, these petty sovereigns are scarcely mentioned in history, and the Anglo-Saxon monarchs are reckoned in a direct line from Egbert, who is said to have given to the whole country the general name of England, meaning, the land of the Angles, or Anglo-Saxons.

And now we may proceed to give some account of the manners and customs of the Anglo-Saxons, and of the habits that were common among our Saxon ancestors; a subject that is not without interest, as most of us are the descendants of these very people; our language is derived chiefly from that which was spoken by them; and many of their laws have come down to our times. I shall first speak of the general condition of the people. In all the nations of Germany there existed, from time immemorial, the two distinct classes of freemen and slaves; and the line was so marked between bondage and freedom that the poorest vassal in the land, if

free, looked upon the serf as a being to be despised and treated with indignity.

Among the freemen were the clergy, the great and lesser nobles, and their military retainers; while the farmers and artisans, who lived in cottages on their lands, although not serfs, were in so complete a state of dependence, that they could not change their place of abode, give their children in marriage, or even make a will, without the consent of their lords. They were his vassals, and bound to perform such services as he might require of them; still they were distinct from bondsmen or slaves; for although they might be transferred with the estate from one master to another, they could not be bought and sold like cattle in the market.

The farmers were called Villians, which then meant nothing more than the inhabitants of a village; and there were inferior tenants, further distinguished as Bordars and Cottars, most likely in reference to the sort of tenements they held. They were obliged to pay yearly dues to their lord of corn, honey, cloth, cattle, and other produce of the farms, beyond which all was nominally their own, but not really so, as it might be taken from them at any time with impunity by their superiors.

Among the vassals of every nobleman there were some who had been taught to work at different trades, that they might be able to furnish all the articles required for use; so that the bordars and cottars were probably blacksmiths, shoemakers, carpenters, bakers, millers, weavers, and others, who exercised their handicrafts in the service of their respective lords. The latter were thus supplied with every thing needful by their own labourers, for several trades were at this period combined in one; so that the shoemaker not only made shoes, but many other things composed of leather, such as leather hose, bottles, horse-trappings, pouches, wallets, &c. And the carpenter made all the household furniture, and the carriages that were then in use, the bodies of which were made of

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leather, and were slung like a hammock, whilst the other parts were of wood.

Fairs and markets were established in many parts of the kingdom, and were, at first, frequently held on Sundays; but the clergy afterwards altered this regulation, and Saturday became the general market-day.

Few of the mechanical arts were understood; nevertheless, many trades were carried on in the towns and burghs by such rough workmen as there were; but I do not know that there were any shops at the time, except taverns, where they sold ale and mead, which were the favourite liquors, for wine was very rare.

One of the most important species of handicraft among the Saxons was that of the smith, which was held in such estimation that the office of king's smith was a post of great dignity, especially in Wales, where the smith and the mead-maker ranked among the lesser nobles. But there were two kinds of smiths, one who made the armour and weapons; the other, the farming implements, &c., and it was those only of the former class who were treated with so much consideration.

The houses of the Saxons were mean in appearance, and built of wood; but many of them were handsomely furnished, considering the state of the times; for the ladies were so clever at needlework, that the hangings were often tapestry, or silk, embroidered with gold; and the best seats had sometimes covers beautifully worked with coloured silks. The chairs and tables were generally of carved oak; and they used table cloths in the houses of the great, who frequently made a grand display of gold and silver plate in the banqueting halls, on festive occasions; but their drinking-cups were usually made of horn, handsomely ornamented with gold or silver; for although the art of making glass had been brought from France during the Heptarchy, and a manufactory established in Northumberland, the glass made there was only

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used for the purpose of glazing church windows; and it was not till long afterwards that drinking glasses were made in England.

The dinner was served by the household slaves, who brought in the roasted meat on spits, and kneeling, presented them to each guest, who cut off a piece where he pleased. Several joints were usually thus handed round the table; for the Saxons were very fond of good cheer; and as ladies were not excluded from their banquets, it is evident they must have been very social entertainments, particularly as they were always enlivened with songs, accompanied by the harp, which it was customary to pass round from one to another, that all might have an opportunity of shewing their skill. Besides the music performed by the guests, there were minstrels and gleemen, who attended feasts to amuse the company with their songs, dances, and tricks.

When the feast was over, the hall was cleared, and beds were spread on the ground for the strangers who had been present at it. They generally used their cloaks for covering: and their arms were hung up over their heads, to be ready in case of any alarm; for security was a blessing unknown in those times, when the nobles were so frequently at war with each other; therefore, every man liked to have his arms within reach at all times.

The ladies spent their time in sewing, spinning, and managing their household affairs; for they had little intercourse with the world beyond their castle walls; and as few could read, their most natural resources were the needle and distaff.

The chief amusements of the great were hunting and hawking; but these sports were considered the peculiar right of the nobility for many ages.

The costume of the Anglo-Saxons consisted of a tunic, which reached to the knee, with long sleeves, and open at the neck; a short cloak, linen drawers, and coloured stockings, bandaged from the ankle to the knee, a fashion that was

called cross-gartering. The rich wore a profusion of ornaments. The hair was long, and the head never covered, except in battle, when they wore helmets and breastplates, but no other defensive armour, except a shield.

The ladies wore a long full robe, with loose hanging sleeves, over a closer dress with tight long sleeves; the head and neck were covered with a veil, and their long hair was curled in ringlets. Gloves were not known till the eleventh century, when they were brought from Germany, but not in such quantities as to be in general wear.

With regard to the learning of this period, it was entirely confined to the bishops, clergy, monks, and nuns, who could read and write, and most of them understood Latin. They were the only historians of the times, and excelled in the beautiful art of illuminating their manuscripts with coloured designs, from which more information has been gained respecting the costume, household furniture, arms, &c. of the people, than from the writings themselves.

Every monk was obliged by law to learn some trade, and to practise it too; so that in every monastery there were carpenters, smiths, shoemakers, jewellers, &c. besides those who worked in the fields and gardens belonging to the establishments. The superior monks were the architects of the age; and some of them were skilled in painting glass for church windows, drawing patterns for embroidered robes, and making church-bells; all which arts, you must remember, were considered as proofs of wonderful talent at that time.

The Anglo-Saxons were so famed for the excellence of their jewellery, that a great quantity of ornaments of all kinds, and of their workmanship, were sent to Italy, where they were sold or exchanged for pictures to adorn the churches, relics of saints, dresses for the priests, and other things not to be obtained in England.

It was customary for the merchants who carried on this trade to pay a duty in France upon all goods they carried

through that country; but some of them contrived to evade this regulation, by assuming the grey woollen gown and staff, and packing their merchandise in a small sack, such as was carried by pilgrims, whose baggage was never searched. This trick was discovered in the time of Charlemagne, who wrote a letter to King Offa on the subject, when the cunning merchants were obliged to pay the duty, and a penance was also imposed upon them. There were various ways of enforcing penance; sometimes a priest would forbid his penitents the luxury of a warm bath or a soft bed, for a length of time proportioned to the offence; sometimes they were not allowed to have their hair curled, or nails cut, for a certain number of weeks; and very often they were enjoined to give so many pounds of wax, to make candles for the use of the church.

Among the customs introduced about this time, was that of tolling a bell when a person died; the intention being that every one who heard the sound should put up a prayer for the soul of the departed; and this custom of "the passing bell," as it is termed, is, in some places, still retained.

With regard to the government, the great council or parliament of the nation was called "Witenagemot," which signifies, a meeting of wise men. It was composed of the thanes, or nobles, and the bishops; and as the king could pass no law without their consent, they possessed more actual power than he did.

Crimes were seldom punished with death, but by fines; and in cases of murder, the amount of the fine depended on the rank of the person murdered; and this mode of setting a price on the life of every person, was intended as a protection; for if the fine were not paid, the offender became a slave.

There were many other laws and usages which appear strange to us now, but which were, no doubt, suited to the

times in which they were made. For example, slaves and cattle were considered as current money, and people were obliged to take them in payment of debts, as though they had been pounds, shillings, and pence.

All these were the customs of a half-civilized people, and, as such, have nothing in them to excite much surprise; but we cannot read without horror of parents selling their children for slaves, which was a common practice among the poor peasantry as long as the Anglo-Saxons reigned in England.

ALFRED THE GREAT.

872.

FIVE sovereigns had reigned in England since the dissolution of the Heptarchy, when Alfred the Great came to the throne. He was the youngest son of Ethelwulf, and, in 871, succeeded his brothers, who had reigned successively for short periods. He married Ethelwitha, the daughter of a Mercial Earl. The country had long been disturbed by the invasions of the Danes, or Northmen, who were the same people whom the French called Normans, and who landed on various parts of the coast, burned down the towns, robbed and murdered the people, and were even daring enough to break open monasteries for the sake of plunder. The nobles were obliged to keep their vassals constantly armed against them; but it was not in their power to remedy the evil, for the pirates came in such vast numbers, that no one nobleman could muster a force strong enough to oppose them; and no one dared to go to the aid of another, because, by doing so, his own family and property must in the meantime be left unprotected.

Things were in this state, when Alfred, at the age of twenty, became king of England. He was a prince of

extraordinary talent and virtue, brave in war, a wise legislator, fond of learning, and withal possessed of a most amiable disposition. Such a monarch as this could not fail to be a blessing to the country, and so he proved, yet, like the illustrious Charlemagne, Alfred, when he was twelve years old, knew not how to read; and it is said his ambition to attain this accomplishment was excited by the following circumstance. His mother had a book of Saxon poetry, the pages of which were illuminated in a splendid manner, and the verses of a nature to delight a youthful hero, who was looking forward to the time when he should be a man, able to wield a spear, and distinguish himself in battle. Alfred and his brothers stood around the queen as she read aloud to them from the admired volume, which she promised to give to either of them who should first learn to read it; and although Alfred was the youngest, he won the prize. Such was the commencement of the studies of this renowned prince who afterwards went to Rome to complete his education, and became one of the best scholars of his time.

During the first years of his reign, he was entirely occupied in fighting against the Danes, who were now carrying on a regular warfare in England, with the view of making an entire conquest of the country; but they were at length defeated, and forced to betake themselves once more to their own land. Some of the particulars of this war are so interesting that I shall relate them.

After several unsuccessful battles, the young king was deserted by so many of his soldiers, that he was left almost alone, and was obliged to disguise himself in order to escape being made prisoner by the Danes, who were searching for him in all directions. Destitute of food and lodging, he applied to a cowherd for employment, and was engaged to look after the cows; a singular occupation for the sovereign of a great nation; nevertheless, he performed his humble duties to the best of his ability, so that no one had the least

suspicion of his rank. At last, his enemies concluded he was dead, and left off seeking him, when he quitted the service of the cowherd, and collecting around a few of his most faithful friends; they built and fortified a castle in a wild uninhabited spot, where it was not likely to be discovered. Here they concealed themselves for a long while, now and then going out to watch for straggling parties of Danes, whom they surprised and defeated; and having gained several small victories in this way, the king began to think of preparing for a battle: but before he ventured on so bold a measure, he wished to ascertain the strength of the enemy. It is stated, on the authority of some of the old writers, that, instead of trusting to the reports of others, he went himself, in the disguise of a wandering minstrel, into the Danish camp, and was admitted to the presence of the chiefs, who were quite delighted with his performance on the harp, and made him partake of their good cheer, being entirely unaware of the real quality of their guest.

Alfred soon discovered that the Danes thought of little but feasting and enjoying themselves; therefore, he resolved to attack them suddenly while they were thus unprepared, and despatched messengers to all the English nobles on whose fidelity he could rely, desiring them to assemble secretly and speedily, with their vassals, in Selwood Forest, a summons that was joyfully obeyed, for most of his subjects, as well as his enemies, had believed that he was dead. The chiefs armed their followers, and led them to the rendezvous, to wait the arrival of their monarch, whose appearance was greeted with long and loud acclamations. To be brief, the war was renewed, the Danes were completely routed, and Alfred was happily restored to the throne.

His first care was to provide against future invasions, by establishing an army and navy for the defence of the country. He therefore employed a great many ship-builders, who soon constructed a number of fine vessels, that were manned and

put in a condition to prevent foreign ships from approaching the shores of England.

The king also decreed that every freeman in the kingdom should be a soldier; but as it was necessary that the land should be cultivated, and trade carried on, the army was separated into three divisions; one to be stationed in castles and fortresses; another in the towns; and the third to attend to their usual avocations. But that all these duties might be properly discharged, they were performed in turn by each division, the soldiers from the fortresses removing to the towns, those in the towns going to their farms and workshops, while the farmers and artizans marched off in arms to the fortresses.

The Saxon castles were built with one tower, and had several courts and dwellings, enclosed by a double wall, defended by turrets and a moat; and separated from the building was a watch-tower, called the Barbican, from which the warder of the castle could see who was approaching.

When Alfred rebuilt the city of London, which had been destroyed by the Danes, he used brick and stone, as well as wood, which was a great improvement; for in all towns where the houses were built of wood, fires were frequent and destructive. London had several times been burned down, and many other cities destroyed by fire; which is not surprising when we consider that, besides the timber of which the houses were built, they were also thatched, even in the largest towns. London, being thus repaired with brick and stone, became the metropolis of the kingdom, instead of Winchester, its former capital.

While Alfred was thus providing for the safety of his people, he was also studying how to make them wiser and better, by giving them opportunities of acquiring knowledge, for he thought it lamentable that scarcely a nobleman in the country should be able to write or read. There are said to have been schools founded in the time of the Heptarchy, both

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at Oxford and Cambridge; but, in consequence of the wars, they had been neglected, and, for a long time, had been without either teachers or scholars; the king, therefore, appointed teachers at Oxford, and established many other schools, and passed a law that all persons of rank should send their sons to be educated. He also wrote several instructive works himself; and translated Æsop's Fables from the Greek into the Saxon language; but as long as printing was unknown, learning could not, by any possibility, become very general.

King Alfred divided England into shires, (the word shire means a part separated from the rest), and ordained that every ten families should form a community called a tything, every householder being obliged to enter his name in a sort of parish register, stating his occupation, and the tything to which he belonged; so that each magistrate knew what inhabitants belonged to his district; and if there were any persons who did not register their names, they were considered outlaws, and not entitled to protection.

Sheriffs and aldermen were instituted in this reign, and courts of justice were held every month, in which each magistrate was assisted by twelve freeholders, a custom, which, it is supposed, gave rise to trial by jury.

Trade, both foreign and domestic, was encouraged by King Alfred, who sent out ships to the Mediterranean, at his own expense, and rewarded those who were clever enough to invent any thing useful, as very little progress had been made in the mechanical arts. The want of clocks and watches was supplied in a very ingenious manner by the king himself, who invented a method of dividing time by wax candles, which were marked with lines at exact distances, and being enclosed in lanterns, burned from one line to another in an hour; but as this was rather an expensive kind of clock, it could only be used by the rich.

I have given you a long account of Alfred the Great, for

he was the bright star of a dark age: and the English have as much cause to be proud of him as the French of their great and good emperor Charlemagne.

The beneficial effects of Alfred's good government were felt long after his death, for his son Edward, and his grandson Athelstan, followed in his steps, particularly the latter, who was a very excellent sovereign, and the first sole king of England, as in his time all the tributary princes, except those of Wales, were forced to give up their territories.

One of the later Saxon kings imposed an annual tribute on the Welsh princes of three hundred wolves' heads; by which means, Wales was in a few years freed from those terrible animals.

England was, at this time, very thinly inhabited, in consequence of which, so much of the land was uncultivated, that large tracts, which had been corn fields in the time of the Romans, were now vast forests infested by wolves and boars, and bands of robbers; so that instead of having plenty of corn for exportation, as formerly, the people had hardly enough for their own consumption, and were thus deprived of one grand branch of commerce. Athelstan was, however, so anxious to encourage foreign trade, that he enacted a law by which all merchants who had made three voyages in their own vessels were admitted to the rank of Thanes, or nobles of the second order.

The principal voyages were made to Italy, whence were brought silks, perfumes, precious stones, and other eastern produce, which the Italians obtained by their trade with Asia; but all these things were expensive, and spice was such a luxury in England, that a small quantity was sometimes sent from one person of distinction to another as a valuable present.

As to the internal trade of the country, it could not have been very considerable, for if any sale were to be made above twenty pennies, it was necessary for the chief magistrate, the

priest, or the lord of the manor, to be present, otherwise the bargain was void, a custom that perhaps arose from the circumstance of people not being able to write; for as no receipts could be given, it was necessary to have witnesses to every transaction.

The most striking points in the history of this period are the increasing taste of the people for a monastic life, and the great influence possessed by the clergy. Every monarch and rich noble spent part of his revenue in building monasteries, which were soon filled with monks, notwithstanding many severe rules made by St. Dunstan. This Dunstan was a celebrated archbishop of Canterbury, and was primate of England, ruling both church and state with absolute authority. He was noted for the austerity of his manners, and among other severe regulations with regard to the priesthood, he ordained that they should not be allowed to marry, a privilege they had enjoyed in England before that period.

The first organ in England was presented to the church of Malmesbury by St. Dunstan, who probably brought it from France; and the same haughty prelate, who was one of the best workers of metals in the kingdom, made two great church bells for the Church of Abingdon, and a wheel full of little bells, to be turned round on feast days; all which added to his renown; for a bell was esteemed a great work of art in those days, and it was considered an act of piety to present one to a Church. He was also the author of several books.

By the influence of Dunstan, King Edgar was induced to build as many as forty-eight monasteries at his own expense, but this great increase of religious establishments was unfortunate in one respect, since there were far more monks than soldiers in the country, so that it was less able to withstand the ravages of its old enemies, the Danes, who did not fail to avail themselves of its feeble condition; and in the

reign of Ethelred the Second, the eighth sovereign inclusive in succession from Alfred, these fierce Northmen again invaded England.

THE DANES.

You are aware that the Danes were originally the same people as the Normans, although the latter name is now confined to the inhabitants of Normandy, the descendants of those Northmen who had settled in France under their brave chief Rollo, the first duke of Normandy, in the time of Alfred the Great. They had for ages been accustomed to lead the life of pirates, and, till Alfred built a fleet, they had kept such entire possession of the northern seas, that they were called the Sea Kings, and many of them had settled in Ireland, the islands bordering on Scotland, and even in different parts of England, where they now lived quietly among the rest of the people.

However, it happened in the reign of Ethelred the Second, that Sweyn, the king of Denmark, having collected a numerous band of adventurers around him, they set sail for England, determined to profit by the unguarded state of the kingdom; but no sooner had they landed and commenced their usual depredations, than Ethelred, a monarch of little ability, and less courage, offered the Danish chief a large sum of money to depart, which he accepted, doubtless with feelings of contempt at so unwarlike a proceeding,

As might have been expected, this bribe served to increase the rapacity of the invaders, who made fresh demands; enacting each succeeding time a larger sum, which was raised

by a tax on the people, called Danegeld. The very act of paying this money was sufficient to shew the Danes that the English knew themselves to be the weaker party; and although it purchased a temporary cessation of hostilities, it did not prevent small parties from coming over to see if they could not live better here than in their own country; and when they found how little able the English were to protect themselves, these lawless soldiers took possession, without ceremony, of the best rooms in the houses of the townspeople, ate and drank at their expense, and treated their remonstrances with ridicule.

At length, the people were provoked to take a terrible revenge for all these outrages Some say it was planned by the king himself; but be that as it may, it was executed by the people, who on the same day, and at the same hour, fell suddenly on the Danes in every town all over the kingdom, and murdered them all without distinction, not sparing even those who had been so long settled among them, and who had nothing to do with the misconduct of the new comers. But the most dreadful part of the story is, that many of the victims had married English women, who, with their children, shared the fate of their husbands.

This fatal event took place in November, 1002, and was no sooner known in Denmark, than Sweyn, who was now king of that country, raised a formidable army, and fitted out a great fleet, of which he took the command himself, and landed in Devonshire, bent on revenging the slaughter of his countrymen, and making a conquest of the kingdom. The sufferings of the English during the contest were very great. Most of the great towns were burned down, the monasteries plundered, and lives and property destroyed without mercy; but as I am not fond of describing the horrors of war, I shall only tell you the result of these violent proceedings. Ethelred was deposed, and Sweyn was proclaimed king of England. He died, however, a few months afterwards, and Ethelred

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was restored; but the timid monarch was quite incompetent to carry on the war, which was renewed by Canute, the son of Sweyn, who, after the death of Ethelred and his son Edmund, obtained the throne.

We can easily imagine that, after such a war as this, many thousands of families must have been without a home, that the castles of noblemen were crowded with their vassals, whose cottages had been destroyed; and that all the workmen in the kingdom were busy in repairing the mischief that had been done; but as houses in those days were of simple construction, the rebuilding of a whole town was speedily accomplished. In other respects, the change of government occasioned very little difference, for the new king made no alterations in the laws or customs of the land; therefore it was not of much consequence to the generality of the people whether they were governed by Ethelred the Saxon, or Canute the Dane.

In the mean time, the two younger sons of Ethelred were receiving their education at the court of their uncle, Richard, duke of Normandy, where they had been taken by their mother, Queen Emma, at the beginning of the war. The boys were sufficiently happy, but not so the queen, who still pined for the rank she had lost, and, strange to say, accepted an offer of marriage from Canute, the enemy of her children, and the usurper of their rights. The marriage quite reconciled the English to their Danish sovereign; and he was soon much beloved, for he treated the English and the Danes with equal kindness and justice, and possessed many of those noble virtues which are often found in the chiefs of barbarous nations.

The costume of the Danes was very similar to that of the Saxons, and they wore their hair in the same manner, long and curled; but the soldiers wore heavy armour, their tunics being covered with rings of metal.

Canute made himself a great favourite among the peasantry

by composing a great many Saxon ballads, which became very popular among them; and as he did not interfere with any of the privileges of the higher classes, he secured the love and respect of all his subjects. He built several monasteries, and a few years before his death, made a pilgrimage to Rome. According to the custom of the times, this great prince changed his regal robes for a grey woollen gown, and, with a wallet on his back, and a staff in his hand, set off on his long journey alone and on foot. In his way through France, he made large donations to all the principal churches; and at Rome, purchased the arm of St. Augustine, for which he paid an enormous sum of money, and presented it to the church of Coventry on his return. I mention this circumstance to show you how men gained esteem in those days, not always by really good deeds, so much as by what were then considered acts of piety, some of which, though quite in character with the credulity of those times, would be thought absurd, now that people are so much more enlightened.

Canute left two sons, Harold and Hardicanute, of whom the former reigned four years, the latter two; and with these ended the sovereignty of the Danish kings of England.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1066.

I WILL now relate to you how the invasion of the Danes led to the Norman Conquest, the most remarkable and most important event that occurs in our history. Queen Emma, as I before observed, in order to avoid the miseries of the war, placed herself and her children under the protection of her brother, Richard, duke of Normandy, at whose court they

naturally acquired the tastes and habits of the people by whom they were surrounded.

One of these princes was murdered, but the other succeeded to the throne on the death of his half-brother, Hardicanute, and was called Edward the Confessor. On his return to England, he was accompanied by a great many Norman noblemen, and after his coronation, people flocked over from Normandy, and other parts of France, to take up their abode in this country. French was spoken at the court, and afterwards taught in schools, and became the fashionable language among the higher classes; the French style of dress was also adopted by both sexes, and all that was not imported from the Continent, was looked upon by the young and gay, who are ever fond of novelty, as dull and old-fashioned; for fashion, even in that rude age, had as much influence as in the present day.

It was certainly natural that the king, who was now forty years old, should be attached to a people amongst whom he had spent the best part of his life; and that he should heap favours upon those who had been friends to him when he was in adversity, and an exile from his native land. Gratitude, as well as long habit, prompted his present conduct, and caused him to fill his court with Normans, and bestow on them many of the best appointments. But it was equally natural that the English should be dissatisfied at seeing the preference shown to the foreigners, who, presuming on the king's favour, assumed a superiority over them.

At last, the discontent of the nobility broke out into a rebellion, headed by Earl Godwin, the richest and most powerful nobleman in the kingdom; whose daughter Editha, a beautiful and amiable young lady, was married to the king. At first, Godwin was unsuccessful, and was forced, with his partisans, to escape into Flanders, when he and his son Harold were outlawed, and their estates confiscated. The poor queen, too, though she had done no wrong, was sent to

a nunnery. Godwin, however, soon returned, he and his son recovered their ascendancy over the king, and his daughter was restored to her liberty and rank.

You have all probably seen or heard of the great sand bank in the sea near Ramsgate, called the Goodwin Sands. This bank is supposed to have been a tract of land that belonged to Earl Godwin, but it was given to the monks of St. Augustine at Canterbury, who neglecting to repair the wall that protected it from the sea, it was inundated in the time of Henry the Second, and formed that dangerous shoal on which so many vessels have been wrecked. I do not tell you this as a certain fact, but as a conjecture, for which there is reasonable ground. On these shoals or sands, a lighthouse has been erected. I am happy to say that it has been the means of preventing much shipwreck, and saving many lives, and will be one of the most useful of our national objects.

But to return to our history. Soon after the banishment of Earl Godwin, William, duke of Normandy, came to visit his cousin, Edward the Confessor, and was, of course, received by all the Normans as their sovereign; so that, instead of feeling like a guest at the palace, he felt as if he were already king, and had he not beforehand entertained a design of obtaining the crown of England, he probably made up his mind to do so on that occasion, as, before his departure, he is said to have induced Edward, who had no children, to promise that he should succeed him.

However, when Edward died, Harold, son of Earl Godwin, who had been restored to favour, and succeeded to all his father's wealth and power, claimed the crown, as brother-in-law of the late king, while the Normans declared that it belonged of right to the duke of Normandy. Harold was, however, in accordance with the usual customs of the Anglo-Saxons, elected by the English clergy, nobles, and citizens of London, and was afterwards crowned at Oxford.

His reign was very brief, for, in a few months, an army of

sixty thousand men, commanded by Duke William, and many Norman barons, landed in Sussex, where the famous battle of Hastings was fought, that terminated the life of Harold, and gave the sovereignty of England to William the Conqueror, who, in commemoration of this victory, founded a monastery on the spot where the combat took place, which was afterwards called Battle Abbey.

The custom of building religious edifices, in gratitude for benefits, or atonement for sins, was prevalent all over Europe in those days; consequently the monks and nuns formed a very large proportion of the community in every Christian country. The word "monastery" means, a dwelling for monks; and the word "monk," which is derived from the Greek language, means a solitary person, or a person retired from the world. Some of the monks are called "friars," from the French word "frère," brother; and "nun" signifies, a sister in religion, derived also from the French word "nonne."

There was a difference in the rank of the monasteries, as well as in the orders of monks who inhabited them; for instance, some of these buildings were abbeys and some were priories, the former being superior to the latter, and having more privileges. The different orders of the monks and nuns were distinguished by different crosses, and had different rules for their mode of living, some more strict than others; but they were all under the control of a head, who in abbeys, was called the abbot, or abbess, and in priories, the prior, or prioress.

Among those who devoted themselves to a religious life were found persons of all ranks, who, from various causes, had been induced to withdraw from the world. Many of them took considerable property into the convents to which they retired; but the moment they became members of the fraternity, or sisterhood, this property belonged to the whole community; for every thing was held in common amongst

them, so that none could leave any thing away from the convent at their death.

In course of time, these establishments grew very rich, for people of fortune often bequeathed large sums of money to them, and sometimes lands, so that the monks became great landed proprietors, and had a numerous tenantry, who were generally happy under their control; for, as they never married, they had no families to provide for; and as they were not desirous of making a grand display in their mansions, they had no inducement to oppress their dependants, as the nobles did, who too often took all they could from their poor tenants, in order to support their own extravagance.

The rules of their orders required the monks to live in a very frugal manner, and a part of their revenues was employed in acts of charity; much of the property being left to them expressly for that purpose.

Abbeys in England were, perhaps, more numerous and more richly endowed than in any other country, there being on an average about twenty for every county. They were in those days the chief schools for education, for in every establishment, a certain number of monks were appointed to give instruction to the youth in the neighbourhood, free of expense to the parents; and all the daughters of the nobility and upper classes were sent to the convents to be taught reading, needlework, and such accomplishments as young ladies were then in the habit of learning, consisting chiefly of music, spinning, and embroidery. The Anglo-Saxon ladies were so celebrated for the beauty of their needlework, that King Harold's banner was sent by William the Conqueror as a present to the pope, both on account of its splendid embroidery, and to serve as a memorial of his victory. A curious specimen of tapestry is still preserved at Bayeux, in Normandy, supposed to have been worked in England under the direction of Matilda, the queen of William the Conqueror,

who was the daughter of Count Baldwin, of Flanders. The Bayeux tapestry represents the whole history of the Conquest, embroidered on a linen cloth, four hundred and forty-two feet in length, and two feet wide; a proof of the industry of the ladies in olden times.

There was in every monastery a great room, called the *scriptorium*, where a number of the brothers were constantly employed in copying manuscripts for the library; a work of great labour and importance in those times, when all books were in writing, and could only be obtained by the rich, in consequence of the time and trouble it took to produce even one volume: indeed, if it had not been for the industry of the monks and clergy, we should have known comparatively but little of the state of our own country in the early ages; for it was they who kept all the records, and wrote all the histories.

Among the many advantages attending the institution of monasteries at a period when society was in so rude and lawless a state, was the shelter and protection they afforded to travellers, who there never failed to meet with a kind welcome and hospitable entertainment.

Westminster Abbey was founded by one of the early Saxon kings, and restored by Edward the Confessor, who pulled down the old edifice, and erected a new one in its place; but it was again rebuilt in the Gothic style by Henry the Third, and, since then, has been much altered and embellished at different periods.

The manners of the people were but little changed since I spoke of them before; nor had they yet discontinued the barbarous custom of selling slaves, which was so openly practised, that a regular slave market was held in Bristol, where the poor creatures were tied together with ropes, and placed in rows, for the buyers to make their choice. The Irish came there frequently to purchase slaves for the Danes, who were in possession of a great part of Ireland, and would

always give a higher price for English slaves than for those of any other country. The slave market, however, was suppressed about this time in consequence of the exhortations of Wulfstan, bishop of Winchester, but the trade was still carried on privately, till a law was made against it in the time of Henry the Second.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

1066 to 1087.

THE death of Harold, the last of the Saxon monarchs, had placed the duke of Normandy on the throne of England, but the great mass of the people were far from being satisfied at the prospect of a total change in their laws and institutions; and the new king had great difficulty to secure his conquest, which was done at length by the terrible means of fire and sword.

His first object, however, was to conciliate the goodwill of his new subjects, by behaving towards them with great moderation, and declaring that he would preserve all their ancient laws and rights; but at the same time he was building forts in all the principal towns, and filling them with soldiers, to act as a check over the people, and to prevent any attempt at revolt, while he levied heavy taxes to maintain these soldiers, who soon began to make the English feel that they were a conquered, and would ere long become a degraded people.

It happened that the king, shortly after the Conquest, went over to Normandy, taking with him a large quantity of treasure, and other spoils of war, that had belonged chiefly to

those who had fallen at the battle of Hastings, which he divided among the religious establishments of Normandy. During his absence, there were insurrections all over the country; but any efforts now made by the English to recover their liberty, only served to hasten their final subjugation; for the king was not sorry to have a pretext for increasing the violence of his measures, that he might augment his wealth, by seizing the estates of the disaffected.

Many of the richest families had deposited their money, jewels, and plate, in monasteries for safety; but these sacred edifices were not respected by the fierce Normans, who broke through the gates, and carried off the wealth they found therein; so that numbers of men, reduced to beggary, fled with their wives, children, and servants, to the forests, where they built habitations, and lived by robbing travellers, and by the chase; pursuing this mode of life to avoid being made slaves, which was the fate of all who were taken in rebellion, as well as of those who had been made prisoners at the battle of Hastings.

The king had returned in haste from Normandy, leaving his queen, Matilda, in charge of the government of that duchy; but, as soon as the insurrection in England had in some measure been subdued, he sent for his royal consort, who came over to this country, accompanied by a great number of Norman ladies, and was crowned with extraordinary splendour at Winchester. This princess was descended from Alfred the Great, whose daughter had married a Count of Flanders, and she was the first queen of England who shared with her husband the dignities of royalty, which were not conferred on the wives of the Saxon monarchs. The coronation of Matilda was soon followed by fresh disturbances; in consequence of which, she returned, with her children, to Normandy, while the king took the field against his oppressed subjects. The most serious revolt was in the north, where the Earl of Northumberland, and several other noblemen, assisted

by the king of Scotland, made a bold attempt to shake off the Norman yoke; but they did not succeed; and having lost all their possessions, some fled to Scotland, while others sought shelter in the woods. The fierce conqueror, being resolved to prevent future insurrections, sent his troops to lay waste that part of England with fire and sword; and but too well did they obey his savage commands, for all the land from York to Durham was converted into a dreary wilderness, the towns and villages were burned, and people cruelly destroyed, and, for a very long period, a large tract of country remained uninhabited.

Having once begun this course of violence, William did not stop till he had so entirely subdued and impoverished the people of England, that they had no power to offer further resistance. Every large estate in the kingdom was seized, on the plea that its owner had been guilty of treason and rebellion; the nobles were degraded, and the rich despoiled of their wealth, till there was scarcely an Englishman left possessing either rank or property, while the Normans became lords of all.

Such were the changes produced by the conquest: and now let us see how William disposed of the lands he had so unjustly gained. First, he reserved a large portion for himself, consisting of manors, towns, and burghs, the inhabitants of which were all made tenants of the crown, and obliged to pay certain yearly dues to the king, which constituted a part of his revenue; and the rest of the country he divided into fiefs or baronies, which he bestowed on his chief nobles, in return for their military services, according to the feudal system established in France. The barons, out of their large fiefs, gave manors or estates to their knights and retainers, who portioned them out in still smaller lots among their vassals, every man being bound to serve the knight or baron of whom he held his land. To the inferior classes belonged a great many Englishmen, who having submitted quietly from the

first to the Norman government, were treated as friends, but excluded from all the highest offices. In course of time, however, the Saxon and Norman races were so blended together, that they became as one people, and all enjoyed equal rights.

The only classes who were not much affected by these changes were the serfs and artisans, who were, for the most part, retained on the lands to which they belonged; for the Normans were soldiers, not workmen, therefore they were glad of the services of these valuable, though poor and oppressed, members of society.

It has been asserted that William the Conqueror attempted to abolish the Anglo-Saxon language; but this is very doubtful. He himself, as well as all his followers, spoke French, because it was their native tongue, but the English were at liberty to use their own Saxon, into which many Norman words were gradually introduced, while the Normans insensibly adopted a great number of Saxon expressions; and as the learned of both nations used the Latin tongue, the three languages, combined, form the elements of modern English.

Among the institutions of this monarch, was that of the curfew bell, which was rung at eight o'clock in the evening, to warn the people to put out their fires and candles; a law not made from any tyrannical motive, but with the good intention of preventing the terrible conflagrations that so often happened in the towns when so much wood was used in building; and the ringing of the curfew, or *couvre feu*, was not a custom in England only, but also in Spain, Italy, and several other countries, about the same period.

The Conqueror has been accused of tyranny in many instances, but he never more truly deserved this accusation than when he turned hundreds of families out of their homes, and seized on their lands, to make himself a forest to hunt in; for although there were many large forests all over England, where the Saxon monarchs had been used to enjoy the

pleasures of the chase, he thought it would be more convenient to have one close to his own palace at Winchester; and as he never suffered either law or justice to interfere with his will, he took to himself a large tract of inhabited country in Hampshire, gave orders that all the dwelling-houses, convents, and churches, within its circuit, should be pulled down, and made not the least reparation to the many persons who were thus utterly ruined by his selfish folly.

All this land was made into one immense park for hunting, and stocked with wild animals; and then the king made a law that any one who should kill a deer in the New Forest should have his eyes put out; for you must know, that putting out the eyes, and cutting off the hands, feet, or ears, were common punishments in those days. The game laws were very strict at this period, and the inhabitants of London were deprived of the privilege they had enjoyed under the Saxon kings of hunting in the forests of Middlesex and Surrey; but this right was restored to them by Henry the First, and is the origin of the once famous Epping hunt, still held on Easter Monday in Epping Forest.

There is yet preserved in the Chapter House at Westminster, a curious book, that was compiled in the reign of the Conqueror, from surveys then made, and others in the time of Edward the Confessor, called the Doomsday Book, in which was entered an exact account of every estate in the kingdom, the name of its owner, what portion of it was arable, pasture, woodland, &c. how many of the tenants were freemen, how many were slaves, and what rents the chief tenants paid to the holder of each estate. This survey was made by commissioners appointed by the king, chiefly in order that none should evade paying the taxes and services claimed by the crown.

The king's revenue was very large, for he not only held a great number of manors himself, from which he received rents, as his personal estates; but every baron also had to pay

considerable fines and taxes, especially on the death of a landholder, whose heir was obliged to give a certain sum to the king before he could take possession of his estate. If he were a minor, the king received the rents of the estate till his ward became of age; and there were also fines due to the king whenever a proprietor of land sold or granted any part of it to another. Besides all these ways of obtaining money, the king had the disposal of every heiress in marriage, and very often received a large sum of money for his consent that she should wed the person of her choice.

Another source of the royal revenue arose from the markets; for no person could lawfully buy or sell the most trifling article without paying a duty to the king, or the lord of the manor; but as the market people sometimes found means to evade this custom, William made a law that the markets should only be held in walled towns, castles, or burghs, which were military stations, because in any of these places the dues could be easily enforced.

All the burghs, towns, and castles belonging to the king had particular privileges; for example, if a slave escaped from his master, and lived undiscovered for a year and a day in any of these privileged places, he was free for ever.

In the beginning of the year 1087, William the Conqueror being at war with the French king, Philip the Fair, went over to Normandy; where, soon after his arrival, he met with an accident which caused his death, after a despotic reign of twenty-one years. This monarch founded the Tower of London; which he caused to be erected to keep the citizens in awe.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

OF

THE NORMANS.

THE Normans, as other conquerors had done before them, brought their own laws and habits into the country they had subdued; but the change was less striking than that produced either by the Roman or the Saxon Conquest, because there was not that wide difference in point of civilisation between the conquerors and the conquered that marked the former revolutions. They were equally advanced in the social arts of life; their manners were not very dissimilar; and their religion was the same. It is sometimes stated that the feudal system was introduced into England by William the Conqueror; but this is not quite correct, as feudal laws certainly existed in the time of the Saxons, whose vassals held land on condition of performing certain services for their lords, and those lords had absolute dominion over them, according to the feudal system. In France, however, feudalism had been carried to a greater extent; and as the Norman kings were far more despotic than their Saxon predecessors, so the nobles also exercised a more arbitrary power over their vassals.

A feudal estate consisted of the castle, in which dwelt the earl or baron, his wife, children, squires, pages, and domestics. Outside, and close to the walls, was a village, inhabited by the tenants of the feudal lord, who cultivated the land, or worked at their several trades, and were ready to arm in his defence whenever such service was required; and in many parts

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of the estate were farms belonging to the villians, some of whom were bondmen, others free. There was generally a mill on every manorial domain, to which all the tenants were obliged to take their corn to be ground, when a certain quantity was deducted from each measure, as the lord's or baron's due.

Those vassals who were called freemen, were very far from being so, in reality, as they were not masters either of their property or their children, not daring to give permission for a son or daughter to marry without the consent of their lords, who frequently refused it, and sometimes compelled young people to marry very much against their inclinations.

During the reign of William the Conqueror, the absurd mode of trial, by ordeal, which had been in general use among the Saxons, was, by degrees, discontinued, and the Norman fashion of settling legal differences by single combat, was brought into England. This custom was prevalent all over Europe for several centuries, and was more remarkable for its gallantry than its justice, being a proof of the prowess rather than the innocence of the victor. A trial by combat was conducted thus. Any man charged with certain crimes, was permitted to challenge his accuser to fair and open fight, and, if victorious, was pronounced "not guilty." The combatants were usually surrounded by a great number of spectators; and if they were of high rank, it was customary for the king to be present on the occasion. Either party being unable to fight in his own cause, from age or illness, might engage a champion, whose success or failure was considered to establish the guilt or innocence of the accused, and judgment was given accordingly.

The Norman nobles were fond of having about them a great many squires, pages, and retainers of all descriptions, who lived in their castles, and attended them on all occasions. A Norman castle was usually built on an elevated spot, and surrounded by a high wall, sometimes as much as fifteen feet

thick, embattled and strengthened by towers at regular distances. A deep moat or ditch ran outside the wall; and within the outer and inner courts, were the dwellings of all the retainers, and the keep, which was the abode of the baron and his family. There was always a well, that, in case of a siege, the inmates might not be distressed for want of water. These castles were built with more regard to strength than convenience, and were generally gloomy, comfortless habitations, especially for the female part of the family.

The style of furniture and mode of living were much the same as in the Saxon times; and the dress differed but very little, except that the Normans wore short boots, and flat caps or bonnets, and cut their hair short, instead of wearing it long and curled, like the Saxons.

A great many monks had come over from Normandy, who made great improvements in agriculture and gardening, which they understood better than the English, and were in the practice of cultivating their own fields and gardens in Normandy to great perfection. For centuries after this time, it was thought no degradation for even the highest ecclesiastical dignities to labour at any agricultural employment; we are told that the great Thomas à Becket, archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Henry the Second, used to go into the fields, and help to make the hay and reap the corn. The Norman clergy brought over with them the seeds and roots of many vegetables for the table, and taught the people to form gardens. In fact, the churchmen were the only persons who possessed much useful knowledge of any kind in those days, as the nobles had neither taste nor opportunity for the acquirement of learning, which they regarded as an exclusive attribute of the religious orders, with which they had no direct concern. Under the Saxon government, all church lands were held free from military service; but after the Norman Conquest, the domains of the clergy, as well as those of the lay barons, were subjected to the feudal tenure, so that the bishops and

abbots were obliged to furnish soldiers for the king whenever he was at war.

There were no Jews in England until the time of William the Conqueror, when a great many persons of the Jewish persuasion came from Rouen, and settled in this country, where they were extremely serviceable in promoting trade, which was their constant and almost only pursuit in all parts of the world.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

1087 to 1100.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR had four sons, only three of whom survived him, Robert, William, and Henry. To the eldest, he left the duchy of Normandy; to the second, the kingdom of England; to the third, a sum of money, but no estates. Now most persons thought that Robert, duke of Normandy, being the eldest, ought to have been king of England; but he had rebelled and appeared in arms against his father, who, on that account, bequeathed the largest share of his dominions to his second son, William.

As Robert was duke of Normandy, the Norman nobles wished that both crowns should continue to be worn by the same sovereign, because many of them held fiefs both in Normandy and England, and they were afraid of losing some of them in case of a separation between the two countries. In fact, the people in general would have preferred Duke Robert, who was an amiable and accomplished prince; whereas William was a rough-mannered tyrant, and was

universally disliked. The latter, however, was crowned, and an insurrection in favour of his brother was subdued; for the new king gained over many of the old English families to his cause, by promising to restore to them the rights of which they had been deprived by his father. At last, it was agreed that, on the death of either brother, the survivor should succeed to his dominions, and the two crowns be thus re-united. This decision restored peace as far as regarded the question of succession between William and his brother; but the intervals of tranquillity in those turbulent times were seldom of long duration, and the peace of the north was soon disturbed by Malcolm, king of Scotland, who was no friend to the Norman sovereigns, being allied by marriage to the lately deposed Saxon princes. Malcolm was the son of that king Duncan who is said to have been murdered by Macbeth, and was married to the sister of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon kings of England. Matilda, the eldest daughter of this royal pair, was sent to England to be educated, according to the fashion of the times, in the convent of Wilton, of which her aunt was the abbess, and afterwards became the bride of Henry the First. The Scottish war was soon terminated by the death of Malcolm, who was killed in besieging Alnwick Castle, on which his afflicted followers returned to their own country.

The Welsh were, at this period, very troublesome neighbours, being in the constant habit of making incursions into the border counties, from which they carried away cattle, and any other property they could seize upon; and as their mountains were almost inaccessible to any but themselves, pursuit would have been useless. They were a semi-barbarous people, and were governed by their own princes, of whom very little is known.

Among the chief events of this reign was a conspiracy which was formed against the king under the following circumstances. He was so fond of the chase that he prohibited

the nobles from hunting in any of the forests without his special permission, fearing that otherwise there might not be enough game for his own sport. This prohibition was considered so serious an injury, that some of the great barons, headed by Mowbray, earl of Northumberland, conspired to dethrone him. Mowbray was one of the most powerful chiefs in England. He was lord of two hundred and eighty manors, and, therefore, had a great number of vassals at his command.

The king, who had some suspicion of this nobleman, from his having absented himself from court, issued a proclamation, that any baron not appearing at the usual feast at Whitsuntide, should be deemed an outlaw. Mowbray, however, did not attend the feast, but shut himself in his castle of Bamborough; on which the enraged monarch marched into Northumberland, and besieged the earl in his stronghold, which was so resolutely defended, that the king at length took his departure, leaving a body of troops in a wooden fortress, which he had hastily erected near the castle. Soon afterwards, the earl was induced, by some stratagem, to undertake a short journey, when he was waylaid by a party from the king's garrison, bound hand and foot, and carried back to the front of his own towers, which he had so incautiously quitted. A parley was then demanded with the countess, who immediately appeared on the walls, when the ruffians threatened to put out her husband's eyes, if she did not instantly surrender the castle; on which, the afflicted lady ordered the gates to be flung open without delay; but although the cruel threat was not put in execution, the earl was detained a prisoner, and passed the rest of his life in captivity in Windsor Castle.

Soon after this event, Rufus was killed by an arrow shot at random while hunting in the New Forest. He had reigned thirteen years, during which the people, not even excepting the clergy, had been more burthened with taxes than they had

ever been before, and suffered much distress in consequence. The country, however, had been greatly improved with regard to public edifices; and among the noble monuments of this period was the great hall at Westminster, built by the king for a banquetting hall, where the nobles were feasted at Christmas, and on other great occasions.

During the reign of William Rufus, were begun those famous wars called the Crusades, undertaken by the Christians of Europe against the Mohammedans of the East. A great number of princes and nobles joined the first expedition to the Holy Land, some of whom, to raise money for that purpose, sold their lands, or allowed their slaves and vassals to purchase their freedom. Among these was Robert, duke of Normandy, who sold his duchy to his brother William for ten thousand pounds; and thus the English and Norman crowns were re-united.

It was in this reign that the fashion was introduced of wearing shoes with long points, turned up before, and fastened to the knee with a chain. The clergy endeavoured by their preaching to abolish this ridiculous custom; but the people still persisted in wearing long points to their shoes, in spite of all opposition.

Before the conquest, surnames were not known in England; but the Normans adopted a second name by way of distinction, and it usually expressed either some personal quality, as Rufus the Red, or indicated some post at court, or was the name of the family estate, in which last case "de" was prefixed. At that time, a surname was always a mark of high birth; and it was long before the common people were dignified by a second appellation, which, at length, however, they began to acquire from their different occupations; and thus we find among the middle and lower classes names expressive of various trades, as Smith, Tanner, Baker, and many others.

HENRY THE FIRST.

1100 to 1135.

I HAVE already alluded to the agreement made between the late king and his brother Robert, that whichever lived the longer should succeed to the crown of the other; but this agreement was rendered of no avail by their younger brother, Henry, who was hunting in the New Forest, when the accident happened, and who, without waiting to hear the particulars, set off to Winchester, and contrived to get possession of the throne before Robert, who was on his way to the Holy Land, could be informed of his brother's death.

In order to reconcile the people to his usurpation, the new monarch granted a charter, which secured to them greater privileges than they had enjoyed since the conquest, and afterwards served as a model for the famous Magna Charta, to which the English are indebted for much of their present freedom. Henry also restored to his subjects the right of using fire and candle by night, and bestowed many other favours on them, all which he did by the advice of the princess Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, of whom I have before made mention, and who exerted her influence over her royal consort with the laudable purpose of improving the condition of the Anglo-Saxon portion of the people, who were indebted to her for the recovery of many of their ancient rights. The union of Henry with a princess of the Saxon race was the cause of much rejoicing in England, and led to a more friendly feeling between the Saxons and Normans generally. They married with each other, and the children

of these mixed marriages being equally allied to both nations, belonged to neither in particular, but were simply English people.

When Robert of Normandy returned from Palestine, he did not fail to assert his right to the crown of England, but he was persuaded to forego his claim in consideration of being restored to the dukedom of Normandy, and receiving a pension from king Henry; but a quarrel arose soon afterwards between the two princes, who went to war, when Henry took his brother prisoner, and confined him in Cardiff Castle, where he lived a melancholy captive for twenty-eight years, and died there at eighty years of age. It is painful to reflect that one brother should behave so cruelly to another; but it is said that the brave and kind-hearted Robert, of Normandy, was not only imprisoned, but also deprived of his sight, his eyes having been burnt out by the command of Henry.

The duchy of Normandy was thus again united to England; but Henry left no male heir to inherit his rich possessions, for his own legitimate son was drowned in crossing the channel with a large party of young noblemen, who were so imprudent as to give the sailors too much wine, having already taken more than enough themselves. The vessel therefore being carelessly navigated, struck upon a rock, and was lost, with all on board except one, and among the passengers were many ladies of high rank. The only person saved was a poor butcher, who clung to a plank, and was picked up next morning; and he it was who gave intelligence of the fatal event.

His son being dead, the king directed, by will, that the crown should descend to his daughter Matilda, the young widow of the emperor of Germany; who, in compliance with her father's wishes, but contrary to her own, married the count of Anjou, Geoffrey Plantagenet.

Henry the First, although he was not of an amiable disposition, was a wise prince, and governed well. Some historians

assert that parliaments were held in his reign; but this appears to be doubtful, unless a council composed of nobles and clergy, summoned at the king's pleasure, might be termed a parliament. The sovereign, in fact, possessed despotic power, and the Commons were held in so little consideration, that the famous charter granted by the king at the beginning of his reign related only to the families of noble descent.

The state of the rural population may be gathered from the following account of the manner of collecting rents and taxes on the royal domains. When the rents were due, the king made what was called "a progress" through his estates, accompanied by a train of nobles, knights, squires, and domestics, of all sorts, as cooks, confectioners, tailors, barbers, and others, who travelled on horseback, or in very clumsy vehicles. The "progress" was made for this reason, that as the tenants could pay but very little of their taxes in money, the rest had to be taken in "kind," that is, in cattle, corn, poultry, pigs, or any thing else they had; therefore, as the king could not take away all these things, he and his followers remained at each place, feasting, until they had consumed provisions equivalent to the taxes. But not content with this, many of the unruly train behaved very insolently to the poor tenants, went into their houses whenever they chose, took whatever they liked; ate, drank, and slept there, and made the master and his family wait upon them; and if the least complaint was made, they did not scruple to set fire to the dwelling, or do some bodily harm to its inmates; so that nothing was dreaded more than the progresses of the king; and sometimes, on such an occasion, a man would go with his family into the woods, and remain there until the unwelcome visitors were gone.

Among the privileges granted to the citizens of London, by Henry the First, was one which exonerated them from lodging the king's retinue, as had been previously the custom;

but they were the only commoners exempted from this grievous burthen.

The inhabitants of the metropolis were, in this reign, called citizens, instead of burgesses; and guilds, or companies of tradesmen, now began to be formed, the first being that of the weavers, whose art was rapidly improving, in consequence of the settlement of some Flemish weavers in the country. The Flemings were, at this period, the most wealthy and industrious people of Europe, but civil wars drove numbers of the working classes to seek refuge in England and Scotland, where they instructed the people in the manufacture of fine woollen cloth, for which Flanders was highly celebrated. The first manufactory was established in that part of Wales now called Pembrokeshire, under the auspices of King Henry, who had taken that district from the Welsh, and settled there a company of Flemish weavers.

Men of rank, at this period, dressed in a far more costly style than in the time of William the Conqueror. Their tunics and mantles of fine cloth were larger, and often lined with expensive furs. They wore long hair and long beards, a fashion that was displeasing to the clergy, insomuch that, on one Easter-day, a bishop, preaching before the king, spoke of it in no gentle terms, and when his discourse was finished, produced a pair of scissors, and insisted on cutting off the king's beard, and, some say, his curls also. The king having submitted to the operation, the rest of the congregation were obliged to do so likewise. The beards, however, were suffered to grow again; and in King Stephen's time, gentlemen were so fond of long hair, that those who had but a scanty allowance of their own wore false ringlets. The dress of the ladies was very long, with a tight bodice laced up the front, and over it an open robe, called a surtout, richly embroidered. The hair was plaited in tails, and tied with ribbon, as young girls used to wear it some few years ago, and the usual covering for the head was a veil.

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The occupations of the ladies were of the same domestic character as in the days of the Anglo-Saxons; and there was not much improvement yet in domestic comfort, for the fine castles and palaces had no better substitutes for carpets than clean straw, and most of the beds were only rugs spread on the boards or on the floors. The highest nobles sat round an oak table, on clumsy benches; and, having no forks, made very free use of their fingers at their meals.

Unbounded hospitality was one of the great virtues of the times, and the English were beginning to acquire a taste for the luxuries of the East, brought into Europe by the Crusaders. The nobles of England had as yet taken but little part in the Crusade, but they were beginning to adopt the customs of chivalry, which took its rise about the same time as those wars, and exercised a powerful influence over the manners of all European nations during the middle ages. The castles of the great were the schools for knights errant, to which young men of noble birth were sent at an early age to be instructed in such duties as should render them worthy of the honours of knighthood, which they usually received, when of age, from the hand of the nobleman whom they had served as knights and esquires, provided they had merited this reward by obedience and good conduct. In those warlike ages all men were warriors, not even excepting the monks and priests, who were accustomed to bear arms as well as other persons, and appeared occasionally as combatants on the field of battle; consequently, the military power of the country was greater than in the time of the Saxons, although the number of monasteries had increased, for there was scarcely a nobleman in the land who did not found a religious establishment on his domain. The churches and convents of this period were mostly built of wood; but in the last year of the reign of Henry the First, St. Paul's Cathedral was destroyed, with the greater part of London, by fire, which was rebuilt with stone, and was not completed for sixty years.

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Henry the First died at St. Denis, a small town in Normandy, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fifth year of his reign.

STEPHEN.

1135 to 1154.

THE will made by the late king in favour of his daughter, the empress Matilda, was not pleasing to the English barons, who inherited the rude and warlike spirit of their Norman ancestors, and thought it derogatory to their dignity to acknowledge the authority of a female sovereign; and another reason was, their attachment to Stephen, count of Blois, the late king's nephew, who had made himself extremely popular by his affable manners in public. This prince was married to Matilda, a niece of his uncle's first queen, the good Matilda of Scotland, who had been educated in England, a circumstance that endeared her to the English, and strengthened their prepossession in favour of her husband. In short, Stephen usurped the throne; but he obtained the consent of the people, and preserved their good opinion for a time by several popular acts, such as the abolition of the tax called Danegeld, and the alteration of the game laws, by which he gave to his subjects the right of enjoying the pleasures of the chase, which, during the two former reigns, had been reserved almost exclusively for the king and his train.

But this wise policy was not long continued, and Stephen had begun to exhibit as much selfishness and despotism as his predecessors, when the Empress Matilda came to England,

accompanied by a number of noblemen, with their vassals, to assert her claim to the throne. David, king of Scotland, who was her uncle, had already invaded the country for the purpose of supporting her cause; for although he was also the uncle of Stephen's queen, he gave his aid to the empress, because he had long before promised her father that he would do so.

Civil war spread desolation throughout the country. The crops were destroyed, and great distress was occasioned by the consequent scarcity of provisions; while the king, in order to keep the crown he had usurped, was obliged to allow the barons to do whatever they pleased, or they would have deserted him in this crisis. He therefore permitted them to build castles; to go to war with each other; to coin money on their own estates; and, in fact, to be independent of him and the laws. No fewer than about one thousand five hundred castles were built, and filled with men who were no better than bands of robbers; while the nobles, who might be styled captains of banditti, led them forth, day and night, to plunder each other's tenants. The people felt so unsafe in these turbulent times, that it was a common practice with all families, on closing their doors in the evening, to put up a prayer for protection against robbers and murderers. Those who possessed money, plate, or jewels, deposited their property in some hiding-place for better security; yet, even then, it was not always safe, for if any lawless lord entertained the least suspicion that a person had hidden treasure, he would endeavour by torture to make him declare the place of its concealment.

The reign of Stephen, therefore, was most miserable, as far as regarded the great mass of the people, although the king himself appears to have been naturally a well-disposed and valiant prince, distinguished for many noble qualities, as well as for his personal attractions and courteous demeanour.

The war was carried on with varied success, the king being at one time made prisoner, and confined in the castle at Bristol, while his rival assumed the style and authority of queen of England. Her partisans were, at that time, very numerous, and she might probably have retained the throne, but for her own imperious conduct, which converted many of her friends into enemies, and eventually led to her disgraceful flight from the country.

In the meantime, the amiable and spirited queen of the captive monarch having humbled herself in vain before the proud empress, to obtain her husband's liberation on any terms, made great exertions to collect together his friends; and being joined by the citizens of London, assembled a considerable force, and besieged Matilda in her palace at Winchester. For many weeks, that city was a prey to the horrors of warfare, till the empress was obliged to make her escape, and the earl of Gloucester, the chief of her party, was made prisoner. Now, it so happened, that this gallant nobleman was castellan, or governor, of the castle at Bristol, where Stephen was confined; and that his lady, during his absence, was acting as his representative, consequently, had the custody of the royal prisoner. The queen and the countess of Gloucester came to a very amicable arrangement, by which the two noble captives were set at liberty. The war was then renewed, but, in the end, the empress was compelled to quit the kingdom, and Stephen was restored to the throne.

In the meantime, Henry Plantagenet, son of the empress Matilda and her second husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, had become a powerful prince by his marriage with Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis the Seventh of France; for this princess was heiress to the grand duchy of Aquitaine, and it was in her right that the successors of Henry the Second were dukes of Aquitaine. Henry the Second, as being the grandson of Henry the First, was the true heir to the crown of England; and, in 1153, he landed in this country at the

head of a large army, intending to force his cousin Stephen to resign; but instead of beginning a new war, the two princes wisely came to an agreement, that Stephen should wear the crown for the rest of his life, but that Henry should be his successor.

The king died in the following year, when Henry the Second, and his queen, Eleanor, repaired to England, and were crowned in Westminster Abbey, with a degree of magnificence that had never before been witnessed in this country.

HENRY THE SECOND.

1154 to 1189.

WHEN Henry Plantagenet made peace with Stephen, one of the terms of the treaty was, that all the castles built during the reign of the latter, should be demolished, as the prince saw plainly that, while they remained, it would be in vain to make laws for the protection of the people. Stephen, however, had not power sufficient to perform that part of the engagement; but as soon as Henry came to the throne, he commanded that all those strongholds should be pulled down, and wherever the owners offered much opposition, he laid siege to them himself; so that in about one year eleven hundred castles were destroyed, to the great joy and relief of the poor people; who had been so long in terror of the banditti that dwelt in them. The king also took back the crown lands that had been granted by Stephen to persons who had no

right to hold them, and banished from the country many bad men, who had been raised to the rank of nobility by the late king. Having thus, in some degree, restored the country to order, he granted charters to many of the cities and great towns, which rendered the citizens more independent of the feudal barons, and was a great step towards the liberty of the English people.

There was a celebrated churchman at this period of our history, named Thomas à Becket, who was a great favourite with the king, and was raised to such high honours, that he was able to live in a more sumptuous style than any nobleman in the kingdom. This ambitious prelate, being aware that the king was taking measures to limit the power of the clergy, which at this time was very great, secretly resolved to counteract his designs; but he took care to conceal his intentions on the subject till he was made archbishop of Canterbury; a dignity that gave him more authority in religious affairs than was possessed by the king himself. Then, to increase his popularity, Becket changed his mode of life, giving up hunting and hawking, and all those gaieties that had made him agreeable to the king as a companion, and began to live in the most austere and self-denying manner, scarcely tasting any thing but bread and water, and frequently undergoing severe penances; so that he was regarded as a saint by the people, while the king found him a powerful opponent to all his views. Quarrels, therefore, arose between them, in which Becket had the advantage, because he was supported by the pope and the clergy.

The archbishop was accused of high crimes and misdemeanours, and apprehensive of being imprisoned, he fled to France, where he remained for several years. At length, an imperfect reconciliation took place, and Becket returned to England, while the king remained in Normandy; but the prelate soon gave new offence, by inflicting ecclesiastical censures on persons who had opposed him; which being told

to the king, excited his anger to such a degree, that, one night, in a fit of passion, he used some violent expressions, which led those who were present to believe he wished them to assassinate the archbishop. Perhaps they were themselves desirous to get rid of him, which might have made them so ready to take advantage of their sovereign's hasty words, for no sooner had they left his presence, than they set off to Canterbury, and killed the prelate, as he stood before the altar in the cathedral.

The king was shocked and grieved when he heard of this dreadful murder, and did everything in his power to convince the world that it was not perpetrated by his desire; but as he was aware that his own imprudent words had led to the fatal catastrophe, he wrote to the pope, offering to do any penance he might think fit to impose, and declared his willingness to serve for three years, against either the Moors in Spain, or the Saracens in the Holy Land. The pope, however, did not exact the penalty; and some time afterwards, Henry made a voluntary pilgrimage, barefooted, to Becket's tomb, and suffered himself to be beaten with rods, while kneeling in public before the shrine. This spot, thus rendered remarkable, was, for some centuries afterwards, visited by pilgrims from every part of Christendom. Among others, the French king, Louis the Seventh, came to pay his devotions there, and presented an offering of a massive golden cup, besides making an annual donation to the Augustine monks, of seven thousand two hundred gallons of wine, which seems an enormous quantity; but claret was, at that time, only about four pence per gallon.

Just before the assassination of Becket, some events had taken place in Ireland, which ultimately tended to bring that country, for the first time, under the dominion of an English sovereign. Ireland was, at that period, governed by several petty princes, one of whom, Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster. was deposed by Roderick O'Connor, the most

powerful chief in the island, and considered as the superior lord or sovereign of all Ireland. Henry was in Normandy when he was surprised by a visit from the injured Irish prince, Dermot, who related his wrongs, and prevailed on the English monarch to assist in restoring him to his throne. Now it happened that King Henry had long entertained thoughts of attempting the conquest of Ireland, therefore, he readily embraced this opportunity of making an alliance with Dermot, against Roderick, and the rest of the Irish princes, on condition that Dermot, if put in possession of the province of Leinster, should hold it as a fief of the English crown, and assist in subjugating the rest of the country.

The particulars of this invasion possess a vast deal of romantic interest, but as they belong entirely to the history of Ireland, it is sufficient here to state, that this country was subdued without much trouble, and, from that time, was dependant on the king of England. There are few persons who would venture to say that Henry the Second did not act unjustly in seizing on a country to which he had not the slightest claim; but the pope sanctioned his usurpation, and he went to Ireland to receive the homage of the Irish chiefs, who were then his vassals, and, as such, were allowed to keep possession of their territories on the usual feudal terms, of serving the king in his wars, and paying him tribute.

It was the custom, at this period, for every tenant holding a certain quantity of land, to furnish the king with one soldier, ready armed and mounted, whom he was obliged to maintain for forty days in the field. This service, in most cases, had been performed by the tenant himself, till Henry the Second made a law, by which the payment of a sum of money, about three pounds, was substituted for the man and horse; and with the contributions thus obtained, he was enabled to raise an army of foreign troops, which answered his purpose quite as well, and left his people at home to attend to the cultivation of their farms.

The king also commanded that every man in the kingdom should provide himself with a suit of armour, according to his rank and property. A nobleman, or gentleman of a certain degree, was expected to have a coat of mail, helmet, shield, and lance; and a burgess was required to furnish himself with an iron cap, a lance, and a coat thickly quilted with tow or wool. These regulations were made that all persons might be prepared to defend themselves and the country, in case of need.

Henry the Second was several times at war with the kings of France and Scotland, both of whom took the part of his sons, who had rebelled against him, because he would not resign to them a part of his dominions, which comprised nearly one-fifth of France, for he was duke of Normandy and Anjou, as well as of Aquitaine. The bad conduct of the princes, which was encouraged by their mother, Queen Eleanor, caused the king much sorrow; but, at length, two of them died, and the others, Richard and John, were obliged to make submission.

During the unnatural contest between Henry and his sons, William the Lion, king of Scotland, was taken prisoner and brought to London, where he was detained in captivity until he consented to acknowledge himself a vassal of the king of England, and do homage for his kingdom. The act of homage, performed by William the Lion, in order to regain his liberty, furnished a pretext, in later times, for the invasion of Scotland, as we shall find hereafter.

King Henry was never happy in his domestic life, for his sons renewed their undutiful conduct, and he was on such unfriendly terms with his wife, that she was confined as a state prisoner, for many years, in the palace at Winchester.

There was a wonderful story, long popular, respecting King Henry and a beautiful young lady, called Fair Rosamond, for whom, the legends tell us, he constructed, in Woodstock park, a bower, or residence, embosomed with

trees, the approach to which was rendered so difficult, by means of a labyrinth, that none but himself might find the way to it. The queen, according to the legendary tradition, discovered the secret retreat of Rosamond, and contriving, by an artifice, to pass through the labyrinth, destroyed her rival, by compelling her to drink from a bowl of poison. But this is a mere fable, as Rosamond de Clifford, the heroine of the tale, to whom the king was fondly attached before his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, retired, after that event, into a nunnery at Godstow, near Oxford, where she lived for many years; and the king, for her sake, frequently sent presents to the abbess. Rosamond died in the convent, much regretted by all the nuns, whose affections she had gained by her gentle disposition and kindness of heart.

Henry the Second was, in many respects, a very good king, his laws being made with a view of increasing the comfort and security of his subjects, and preparing the way for their future liberty, by diminishing the power of the feudal barons and the clergy. He died in Normandy, after a reign of thirty-two years, when the crown passed to the famous Richard Cœur de Leon, whose first act was to release his mother from her long imprisonment, and place her at the head of the government, as regent, until he should return from Normandy.

London had, by this time, become the established and acknowledged capital of the country; and many nobles and bishops resided there in handsome stone dwellings, then called inns; but the houses of the citizens were generally built of wood, and were thatched on the roofs. In many parts of the country, private houses were formed, like small castles, with loop-holes to admit the light; but in great cities, particularly in London, glass windows were now becoming common.

The citizens, we are told, were distinguished by the politeness of their manners, the rude plenty at their tables,

and the elegance of their dress They were chiefly opulent merchants, who traded to Italy, France, and Spain; but there were also retail dealers, who must have had shops, or probably stalls, where they exhibited their goods for sale.

The city itself was surrounded by a wall, with seven gates, and was strongly fortified with towers and turrets. On the west side was Ludgate, at the end of the Old Bailey, on Ludgate-hill; and between that, and the king's palace at Westminster, a space of two miles, were the country houses and gardens of the citizens, extending along the Strand, or banks of the Thames. Then Moorfields was a lake, into which ran several streams, turning mills; and from the spot where Finsbury-square now stands, to Pentonville and Islington, were numerous meadows and corn fields; and beyond these was a large forest, wherein the citizens partook of the diversion of hunting.

Such was London in the twelfth century; yet, even then, it was considered so grand a place, that the principal citizens were called barons, and ranked as noblemen. The first cook's shop, or public eating-house, was established in the reign of Henry the Second, in London, close by the banks of the Thames; and is mentioned as one of the improvements of the age.

Domestic conveniences, however, were in a very primitive state; carpets were not in use, and it was considered the height of grandeur to have the floor strewed with clean straw or rushes every morning. It was usual to take two meals a day; one at nine in the morning, the other at five in the evening; and those who could not find room at the table, sat upon the floor, which made it very desirable to have clean straw. A better style of living had been introduced by the Crusaders from the East; spices were more plentiful; and the art of making pastry, in which the oriental nations excelled, was becoming known in England. Rich people drank wine, and also mead, a beverage made of honey and

water, fermented as we now ferment beer; the poorer classes regaled themselves with ale and cider.

Among the sports of the times, we may now reckon tournaments, which were first held in England in this reign. The institution of chivalry had been of considerable benefit in promoting an improved state of social intercourse, as all true knights were bound, by its rules, to pay the most devoted and respectful attention to females, whose approbation they were taught to prize very highly; and in seeking to obtain it, their manners insensibly grew more gentle and refined. Chivalry, therefore, did much towards civilizing mankind, in those times, which, from the general ignorance that prevailed, were termed the dark ages. It is true, that the universities of Oxford and Cambridge were rising to some importance about this time, and many young men were sent to study in Paris, and at the famous university of Toledo, in Spain; but the difficulty of obtaining books was an insuperable barrier to the general progress of learning; for although some of the monks were almost constantly employed in copying, the number of manuscripts was limited, for want of materials, paper not having yet been made in England, and the small quantity brought from abroad being manufactured of cotton. The monks wrote on parchment, which was so scarce, that we may suppose there were very few calves killed for eating, at that period; but if the English did not indulge themselves with veal, they had an abundance of beef and mutton, and at a price which, according to our present estimate of money, would appear to us astonishingly cheap, five shillings being the usual price of an ox, and tenpence of a sheep; but the value of money was very different at that period, and the animals were inferior in size to those of the present day.

An amusing anecdote is related of the fondness of the clergy for good living, in those days. The monks of St. Swithin's complained to the king, that the bishop of Winchester had ordered that they should not have so many

dishes at table as they had been accustomed to. "How many has he left you?" said the king. "Only ten," replied the prior. "I never have more than three," said the king, "and I shall desire the bishop to limit you to the same number."

RICHARD THE FIRST.

1189 to 1199.

VERY few sovereigns are more renowned in history than Richard Cœur de Lion; yet he could not be called a good king; for he lived very little among his people, and did not employ his talents for the benefit of his country. He was a brave warrior, and a true knight errant, fond of daring deeds and romantic adventures, and distinguished himself above all other princes by his brilliant exploits in the Holy Land. Such qualities were sure to gain admiration in an age when the great business of life was Crusading; therefore, it was to his spirit of chivalry, rather than to his merits as a ruler, that he owed his fame.

One of the earliest events of his reign was of a very tragical nature, and afforded a proof that the state of the times was such as to require a monarch who would stay at home to enforce the laws, and keep order among the people, instead of leaving the kingdom to its fate, while he was seeking glory in foreign lands.

There was, at this time in London, and all the chief cities in England, a great number of wealthy Jews; a people who have always been famous for their spirit and industry in trade, and who were particularly useful in a country

where there were plenty of monks and soldiers, but, comparatively few merchants. They were not liked, however, on account of their religion, and every opportunity was taken of insulting them; therefore, no surprise was felt when the king himself gave orders that no Jews were to be admitted into the abbey or the hall, at his coronation.

Now it happened that some of the richest Jewish merchants in the city presented themselves at the door of Westminster-hall, bringing valuable presents for the king, who was ready enough, notwithstanding his previous command, to receive both their homage and their gifts; but as they went out again, they were treated very roughly by the crowd, and a scuffle ensued, in which some lives were lost. A violent outcry was then raised; and some said that the king had given orders that all the Jews should be slain: the mob, therefore, rushed towards that part of the city which they inhabited, set fire to their houses, and killed, or pushed back into the flames all who attempted to escape, whether they were men, women, or children.

The king was offended that his coronation should be so disgraced, and issued a proclamation, declaring that he took the Jews under his own protection; and that no one should presume to do them harm; and this edict preserved them from further insult as long as he remained in England; but, after his departure for Palestine, the mandate was set at defiance, and in every large town, the Jews were destroyed in the same cruel manner as they had been in London.

The most dreadful scene occurred at York, where the governor had allowed these persecuted people to take refuge, with their families, and all their most valuable effects, in the castle, which was besieged by the mob; and its inmates, having held out till every morsel of food was consumed, and they were dying of starvation, were reduced to such utter despair, that they burned their property, killed their wives and children, and then stabbed themselves; so that

when the furious rabble burst open the gates of the castle, they found nothing within it but dead bodies.

But we must leave England for awhile, to follow the fortunes of the king; who, from the very day of his coronation, had been intent upon raising money for his meditated expedition to the Holy Land, which was the most brilliant that had yet been undertaken. He sold the crown lands, raised money upon titles of honour and public offices, levied taxes on his subjects, and neglected the interests of his own country, in order to make a splendid appearance in the East.

Attended by a great number of earls, barons, and knights, each followed by a goodly train of vassals, he passed over to France, to join Philip Augustus, who was to be his partner in this crusade. It was about Midsummer, in the year 1190, that these two great sovereigns departed for Palestine, with two of the finest armies that had ever been seen in Europe. Having marched together to Lyons, they separated for a time, as Richard had a fine fleet of ships and galleys, that were to meet him at Marseilles; while Philip, who had no fleet of his own, had agreed with the Italians for the loan of vessels, to carry him and his army to Syria.

In the meantime, Queen Eleanor had repaired to the court of Navarre, to make proposals of marriage from her son to the young and beautiful princess Berengaria, daughter of Sancho the Wise, king of Navarre. Richard had long been attached to this young lady, whose brother, Sancho the Strong, a prince celebrated by the poets of the age for his valiant deeds against the Moors of Spain, had been his intimate friend from a boy. The princess, with the approbation of her family, went with Queen Eleanor to Naples, whence they were to embark for Sicily, where the king was to meet them. Eleanor, who had, in former times, accompanied her first husband, Louis of France, in his crusading expedition to the Holy Land, felt no desire to revisit a scene of which she entertained no very pleasing remembrance;

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therefore, she returned to England, consigning the bride elect to the care of her daughter Joanna, the queen of Sicily, who became the companion of her voyage.

I have not room to relate all the perilous adventures that befel the illustrious party on their way. The marriage of the royal lovers was postponed, because it was Lent; and as it was not considered becoming that the princess should travel with the king until he became her husband, the ladies sailed in another vessel, and being driven by a storm on the coast of Cyprus, were treated so uncourteously by Isaac Comnenus, the Greek king of the island, that, when Richard arrived, he punished the unmannerly despot by making him prisoner, and taking possession of Cyprus. His marriage with Berengaria was then solemnized on the island, after which, the Crusaders embarked for the Holy Land. The king of France, Philip Augustus, had already arrived before the port of Acre, to which city he had laid siege, as it was occupied by the Turks, who opposed his landing. The appearance of Richard and his fleet was hailed with joy by the besiegers; the town was speedily captured by the English monarch, and all the Turks within its walls were made prisoners.

This victory was no sooner gained, than Philip Augustus declared that the state of his health required his immediate return to Europe; but it was strongly suspected he was jealous of the fame which the great hero of England had already acquired. Perhaps, too, he calculated on making a conquest of Normandy, while Richard was engaged in Asia; and it appears that the latter prince had some suspicion of such a design, as he made him promise before they parted that he would not interfere with any French province belonging to the English crown.

The greater part of the French army, however, was left behind, and many battles were fought with the Saracens, during this memorable Crusade; but the grand object of the expedition was not accomplished, and the city of Jerusalem

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was still in the hands of the infidels, when the king received news from England, which made him anxious to return. He, therefore, concluded a truce with Saladin, the famous sultan of Egypt and Syria, for three years, three months, and three days; three being considered a lucky number; for the most talented people of that time, no less than the most ignorant, believed in magical spells, dreams, and omens. The Crusaders took back with them many fine things to Europe; for besides plundering all the towns they conquered, they robbed the caravans of travelling merchants, which were sometimes very richly laden.

On one occasion, they plundered a caravan travelling from Babylon to Palestine with a great quantity of valuable merchandise, consisting of gold and silver, silk robes, embroidered cushions, Persian carpets, silver candlesticks, sumptuous tents and pavilions, armour and weapons, provisions, spices, sugar, and many other luxuries then common among the people of the East.

The romantic interest that has always been attached to this Crusade is owing chiefly to the personal character of the rival princes, Richard and Saladin, who were both distinguished for their valour, generosity, and courtesy. The chivalric manners of the age were never more conspicuous than at this period; and after the truce was settled between the Christians and infidels, they mixed freely together as friends, while their illustrious chiefs entertained each other with banquets, and other amusements; and once, when Richard was ill, Saladin sent him every day the finest fruits he had, with snow procured from the tops of the mountains, which was a great luxury in that hot climate.

On leaving Palestine, the king did not embark in the same vessel with the queen and her ladies, and the fleet being separated by a storm, he sailed up the Adriatic, intending to travel homeward through Germany. Now, why he chose to go that way, is uncertain; for the duke of Austria was his

enemy; therefore he was obliged to disguise himself, and, to avoid suspicion, was accompanied by only a single page. Sometimes, he assumed the habit of a pilgrim, sometimes that of a merchant, and thus was enabled to proceed, without molestation, till he reached a small village near Vienna, when his own imprudence betrayed him.

Being tired and hungry, he stopped to rest at a peasant's cottage, while he sent his page into the town to buy some food, thoughtlessly giving him much more money than was necessary for the purpose. The youth, with equal want of precaution, wore a pair of embroidered gloves in his belt; which, at that time, were sure to attract notice, for none but persons of high rank wore gloves of any description; and such as those which were worn by the page, were not likely to belong to any but a prince. The gloves and well-filled purse exciting suspicion, he was arrested, and obliged to confess the truth; when a band of soldiers was sent to the cottage where the king was, and made him prisoner.

Meanwhile, affairs had proceeded very badly in England. Prince John, Richard's younger brother, had usurped the crown, and was supported by Philip of France, who, unmindful of the promise he had made to Richard in the Holy Land, not to interfere with his dominions in his absence, not only encouraged the rebellion of John, but invaded Normandy himself; and when he knew that Richard was imprisoned in Germany, he offered the emperor a large sum of money for the royal captive.

It was some time before the English knew what had become of their king, whose return was anxiously awaited, as Prince John was universally disliked. At length, his prison was discovered by a troubadour knight, named Blondel, who having reason to believe that he was confined somewhere in Germany, wandered about that country disguised as a poor minstrel, in the hope of gaining some clue to the place of his captivity. One day, as he was singing beneath the tower of

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a gloomy fortress some verses which the king had helped him to compose, he heard the voice of Richard from within, singing a stanza of the same song, on which he hastened to make known this happy discovery to Queen Eleanor, who immediately set about raising money for the ransom of her beloved son. Some historians doubt the truth of this story; but as it is related by persons who lived at the time, and is quite in accordance with the manners of the age, there seems no cause for disbelieving it. The emperor of Germany required so large a sum for the royal prisoner's ransom, that many months elapsed before it could be raised, even though all the plate belonging to the monasteries was given in aid of the collection. The rest was obtained by taxes; and, at length, the king was released, and returned to England, after an absence of four years.

He was received with great joy, especially by the citizens of London, who made such a grand display as he passed through the city, that some foreign noblemen who were with him said, "If the emperor had known that your people were so rich, he would have asked more money for your ransom." Richard forgave his brother John; but he did not remain long at home, for he was impatient to revenge the injuries he had received from the king of France. He therefore repaired to Normandy, and the rest of his reign was spent in an unprofitable war with Philip Augustus.

His death was not so glorious as his life had been; for he was killed by one of his own vassals, under circumstances that did not add much to his renown. A certain nobleman of the province of Limosin, had discovered on his land a treasure, of which he sent a part to the king, who was his liege lord; but Richard said he was entitled to all, and as the owner would not give it up, he laid siege to his castle, and was shot with an arrow, by an archer from the walls. He died from the effects of this wound, being then only forty-two years of age.

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Richard had lived so little among his people, that the laws during the whole of his reign had been set quite at defiance; and among the noted robbers of the age, was Robin Hood, the far-famed captain of a troop of banditti that lived in Sherwood Forest. It is said they led merry lives, and carried on their lawless trade with a spirit of chivalry that distinguished them from other robbers; for they never took any thing from the poor, nor ever did injury to females or children. But who will believe that a gang of outlaws and robbers could live merrily, when they had to hide in caves and dens, surrounded by almost impenetrable thickets or swamps, amidst dirt, damp, and danger? Robin Hood is sometimes represented as a man of noble birth, who had been outlawed; but more probably he was a descendant of one of those Saxon nobles who sought refuge in the woods at the time of the Conquest.

Coats of arms were brought into fashion in the time of Richard the First, and were adopted that the knights who were cased in armour might be known by the devices on their shields. In this reign, also, sheriffs and common councilmen were appointed for the city of London, and the citizens obtained leave to be governed by a Lord Mayor, who at first was chosen for life; but in the next reign the privilege was granted them of electing the mayor annually, and they have retained this right ever since. Aldermen were not appointed till the time of Henry the Third.

KING JOHN.

1199 to 1216.

THE true heir to the throne of England at Richard's decease was Prince Arthur of Brittany, the orphan son of his elder

brother Geoffrey; but he was a child, therefore his uncle John was wicked enough to seize on his inheritance, and to confine the unfortunate boy in a castle in Normandy, where it is supposed he was murdered, as no tidings were heard of him afterwards.

Never was a monarch more universally detested than King John, who did not possess a single good quality to atone for his many vices; yet we shall find that evil sometimes produces good: for it was in consequence of his tyranny and wickedness, that the English barons insisted upon his granting them a bill of rights, called, "Magna Charta," or the Great Charter, which is very much prized by the English, because it secures to them many very valuable privileges.

Soon after the disappearance of Prince Arthur, the French king, who had pretended to be the friend of the unfortunate youth, but had done very little for his benefit, summoned John to appear before the peers of France, to answer a charge brought against him of having caused his nephew to be put to a violent death; but John refused to obey the summons; on which, Philip claimed all his French dominions; for as Normandy and other fiefs were held in vassalage of the king of France, they were forfeited by the feudal laws, the moment the vassal refused obedience to his liege lord. The acquisition of these dominions was, no doubt, Philip's true motive for taking any notice of the fate of poor Arthur; but it was not so with the barons of Normandy, who had regarded the youth as their lawful sovereign; therefore would not assist his unnatural uncle to defend the duchy against the king of France, who made an easy conquest of that, as well as of several other fiefs that belonged to England.

It was not long after the loss of Normandy, that John quarrelled with the pope, which was considered a serious thing in those days, not only for himself, but also for his subjects. The cause of the dispute was this: The archbishop of Canterbury being dead, the king gave the vacant see to the bishop of

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Norwich, a choice that was not approved by the pope, who appointed another prelate to fill the office. The monks of Canterbury chose to obey the latter, saying it was their duty to abide by the will of the Pope; which so enraged the king, that he sent an armed force to drive the monks out of the kingdom; and they all went over to Flanders, while he seized on their lands and treasures. In consequence of this, the pope placed the kingdom under an interdict, which was the most terrible misfortune that could befal any Christian country at that period. As soon as the sentence was pronounced, the places of worship were all shut up, and hung with black; the bells were taken down from the steeples, that their sound might not interrupt the solemn stillness; no prayers were said over the dead, who were buried in the fields and highways; and the relics of the saints were laid on ashes in the silent churches. Every kind of pleasure and amusement was forbidden; the people were not permitted to eat meat; nor the priests to perform any religious rites, except those of baptising infants, and administering the sacrament to the dying.

Nothing could be more melancholy than the state of the country during this time, when all enjoyments, both temporal and spiritual, were interdicted. At length, the pope declared that the king was deposed, and that his subjects were absolved from their allegiance to him; but although his holiness had pronounced this decree, it was no easy matter to make the offender give up the crown; wherefore the pope promised to give the kingdom of England to Philip of France, if he could force John to resign. Philip readily agreed to make the attempt, and having assembled a large army, was preparing to embark, when the weak and wicked monarch, John, terrified at the prospect of a French invasion, tried to conciliate the pope, by offering to do him homage as his vassal, and to pay him an annual tribute for his kingdom; and in con-

sequence of this concession, the interdict was removed, after having lasted six years.

John now grew more tyrannical than ever. He extorted money from his subjects by the cruellest of means, especially from the Jews, whom he caused to be thrown into dungeons, and tortured till they gave him whatever sums he demanded of them. In short, he paid so little regard to justice in any respect, that the nobles met together, and drew up the famous act called Magna Charta, which they resolved to make him sign, either by fair means or by force. Their vassals were all in arms, ready for war, in case of his refusal; and it was fear that induced him, after some delay, to meet them in a field called Runnymead, near Windsor, where the Great Charter of England, drawn up by Cardinal Langton, archbishop of Canterbury, was signed and sealed, in the presence of a vast concourse of armed barons.

This memorable act was framed with a view to remedy the many evils that had grown out of the feudal laws and the despotic power of the Norman sovereigns. We must remember that society was in a very unsettled state at the time; that the laws of the land were utterly disregarded, and that consequently there was no security for lives or property. The king could impose as many taxes as he thought proper, and if he chose to invent new modes of robbing his subjects, there was no parliament to prevent him from doing so. The nobles especially were exposed to his tyranny, by the oppressive custom of wardship, by which he was empowered to take possession of every estate on the death of its owner, and to hold it in ward until it should be redeemed by the heir for a large sum of money. The amount of this fine was always fixed by the king himself, therefore we may suppose it was not very moderate; and if the inheritor happened to be a female, he could oblige her to marry any one he chose, or compel her to forfeit her inheritance; in which case, she had no alternative but to pass the remainder of her life in a

convent. Even a male heir could not marry without the royal sanction, which was seldom given but for a large consideration; particularly in the time of King John, who was so avaricious, that he took away the most simple rights from his subjects, that they might be obliged to repurchase them. For example, the citizens of Worcester paid him a sum of money for leave to sell woollen cloth; one person gave twenty marks of silver, to be allowed to salt fish; from another, the king received a tun of wine, for permission to send cheese out of the country; and many similar transactions are on record, which prove at once the tyranny and meanness of this unworthy prince.

It was not to be expected that while the king exhibited no regard for justice, others who were in power would be more scrupulous. The judges decided the causes brought before them in favour of those who offered the largest bribes; and robbery was so openly committed by people of all classes, that it was no uncommon case for a man to be tried for that offence by a jury of his own companions, not one of whom was more honest than himself. Such was the lawless state of society in this country when King John was forced to give his assent, which he did most reluctantly, to the Great Charter, from which the English date the commencement of that freedom which arises from vesting the power of making laws in the parliament, and not in the sovereign.

Among the numerous articles contained in this act were the following which may serve to show its general tendency. The heirs of all baronies were to succeed to their estates, without being obliged to pay those enormous fines which had hitherto been exacted from them; and in return for that concession, the barons agreed, on their part, to release their vassals from oppressive exactions. In other words, they were, in future, to pay certain reasonable and not arbitrary fines. The courts of justice were to be stationary, instead

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of being held only where the king happened to be; and no freeman was to be imprisoned, or his property seized, without a fair trial, according to the law of the land. Merchants were not to be subject to arbitrary impositions; that is, the king was not to make them pay extra duties on their goods at his will; and all freemen were to be allowed to go in and out of the country at pleasure. The industry of the "villians," or farmers, was not to be impeded by seizing their carts, ploughs, and other implements of husbandry, for fines. There was to be one uniform standard for weights and measures throughout England, and there were to be alterations made in the forest laws, so that the right of hunting might be extended, and the punishment be less severe for killing game. These, and many other rights, were obtained by this celebrated act, an original copy of which is still preserved in the British Museum.

The barons were overjoyed at their success; but the king had no intention of abiding by the terms of the Charter; therefore, as soon as his warlike nobles had returned to their homes and dismissed their armed retainers, he secretly collected an army of foreigners in the Isle of Wight, and led them through the country, besieging the castles, burning the villages, and treating all who fell into his hands with the utmost barbarity; till the people, in despair, applied for assistance to the king of France, offering to bestow the crown on his eldest son, Louis, provided he would come to deliver them from the tyrant. Louis speedily arrived with a powerful army, and the citizens of London had just done homage to him as their sovereign, when the sudden death of John changed the face of affairs in England.

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HENRY THE THIRD.

1216 to 1272.

THE news of the king's death spread universal joy among the people; but their troubles were not yet ended, for his son, though not a wicked, was a weak-minded prince, which was almost as great a misfortune for the country. Henry was only nine years old when he became king of England; therefore a regent was appointed to govern till he should be of age; and this regent, the earl of Pembroke, being a good and wise man, persuaded the barons who had revolted against King John, to give their allegiance to their rightful sovereign, and help to get rid of Louis of France, who was not very willing to give up a crown he had been invited to take; but, after some fighting, he was obliged to withdraw.

Henry the Third may be called an usurper, as there was a royal maiden pining in hopeless captivity, within the walls of the castle at Bristol, who, according to the law of primogeniture, was the rightful sovereign of the country. This was Eleanor, called the Maid of Brittany, the sister of the unfortunate Prince Arthur. She had been confined by her uncle John; and having no powerful friend to maintain her cause, she died at last, after a captivity of nearly forty years, in her lonely cell, which was all she had ever possessed of her vast inheritance.

The calamities that befel the country during this long and unhappy reign, were entirely owing to the unbounded extravagance of the king and his consort, which could only be

supported by the most unjust means. The death of the good earl of Pembroke, had unfortunately left the young king, in the early part of his career, without a real friend to advise him; and instead of keeping on amicable terms with the barons, he made them his enemies, by giving to foreigners all the wealth and honours at his command, and more than he had any right to dispose of. He married the princess Eleanor, a daughter of the count of Provence, who was followed to England by a numerous train of Provençal gentlemen, on whom the king bestowed the highest dignities at the court, with enormous salaries, which he could only pay by imposing heavy taxes on his subjects.

The merchants of London were, at this time, extremely wealthy. At the coronation of the youthful queen, more than three hundred of the principal citizens rode in procession, on horseback, headed by the lord mayor, each bearing a cup, of massive gold or silver, to be used at the coronation feast. They were splendidly arrayed in long robes of velvet and silk, embroidered with gold materials, which, in those days, were both scarce and costly.

After their marriage, the royal couple soon commenced a system of thoughtless profusion, which brought the country to the brink of ruin, and at last occasioned a civil war. The court was filled with foreigners, who were maintained at the public expense, and a great many young ladies came from Provence, at the queen's invitation, and were given in marriage by the king to young English nobles, whose lands he held in wardship, and refused to give up, unless the heir to an estate consented to take a bride of his selection. Estates were sometimes confiscated on slight pretences, for no better reason than because the king wanted money; and the London merchants were often called upon for large contributions, besides the regular taxes. But the Jews were the greatest sufferers by these extortions, for they were the least able to defend themselves, and found no protection, either in the laws,

or the sympathy of the people. On one occasion, the king, having no money to pay the expenses of a grand entertainment given in honour of the queen's uncle, sent word to the Jews, that if they did not furnish him with a sufficient supply, they should all be banished from the kingdom; and the unhappy Jews had no other alternative but to comply with his demand.

In the meantime, the country was in a most miserable condition. Bands of robbers infested the roads in every direction, and many of them were men of rank, who endeavoured to excuse their conduct by saying, that as the king extorted so much from them, they were obliged to live by plunder; and so little did these titled bravoes care for the laws, that one of them being tried for some crime, and found guilty, he went into the court, followed by a troop of armed men, carried off the judge, and imprisoned him in his own castle; for which act of violence, however, he was himself taken prisoner, and banished the kingdom.

The barons, headed by the earl of Leicester and the earl of Gloucester, represented all these grievances to the king, and urged him to dismiss his foreign favourites, and to act in conformity with the terms of the great charter, which he solemnly promised to do, before an assembly of the lords and bishops in Westminster-hall. Yet he shortly resumed his arbitrary practices, in contempt of his oath; so that at last the nobles summoned all their vassals, and commenced a regular war against him. The Scots joined with the king; but the barons, assisted by the clergy, formed a strong party, for they had above a thousand fortified castles in England; and, in a battle fought at Lewes, in Sussex, the king, and his eldest son, Prince Edward, were made prisoners, with many Scottish nobles, amongst whom was Robert Bruce, the grandfather of the celebrated Bruce, king of Scotland.

In consequence of this victory, the earl of Leicester placed himself at the head of the government; but whether he was

doubtful that the rest of the nobles would continue to support his authority, or whether he was anxious to secure the favour of the middle ranks of the people, is not clear; however, he summoned a parliament, at which he ordered that there should be present two knights from every shire, two citizens from every city, and two burgesses from every borough, to make known the grievances of the respective places of which they were the representatives, in order that such complaints might be redressed. This is generally regarded as the beginning of our present House of Commons.

The earl, however, did not long enjoy his power, for Prince Edward made his escape, and collecting his scattered troops, led them against the barons at Evesham, where a battle was fought, in which the prince was victorious, and Leicester was killed. The body of the vanquished earl was mangled and mutilated in the most barbarous manner; his hands and feet were cut off, and sent to different parts of the kingdom, and his estates confiscated to the king; but the parliament, for which he had issued writs, assembled, proceeded to business, and has ever since been continued. His memory was long revered by the people as a martyr to the liberties of the country; and for more than a century afterwards, the common people always spoke of him as "the righteous earl."

The royal army pursued their advantage with much rigour; destroyed many castles of the revolted barons, reduced the rest to obedience, and reinstated the king on his throne.

Peace being thus restored, Prince Edward went on a Crusade, and gained great renown in the Holy land; whither he was accompanied by his wife, Eleanor, a Spanish princess, the daughter of Ferdinand the Third, king of Castile.

Eleanor was the first person in England who covered the floors of her rooms with carpets, or tapestry; a fashion she had brought from Spain, where it had been introduced by the Moors, and which excited much ridicule at first in this

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country, where the people had previously been accustomed to tread on straw or rushes.

About this time, a charter was granted to the inhabitants of Newcastle, authorising them to dig for coal, which had not before been much used for fuel; but it was a long time before it came into general estimation, for when this mineral was first brought to London, the only people who purchased it for fuel were brewers, dyers, and others who required large fires. The smoke produced by the coal was considered such a nuisance, that the gentry residing in and around the city complained of it to the king, who issued a proclamation, forbidding the use of coal fires: but the prejudice gradually wore away; and when Edward the Third was crowned, ten shillings worth of coal was bought to cook the coronation feast. Ten shillings, in those days, was a large sum for such a purpose, being equal to about eight pounds of the present money.

Henry died about eight years after the restoration of peace, in the fifty-sixth year of his reign, which, except that of George the Third, is the longest we read of in the history of this country. His son, Edward, being absent in Palestine, the kingdom was governed by regents till his return. The widowed queen Eleanor retired into a convent, where she took the veil, and lived to a very advanced age.

EDWARD THE FIRST.

1272 to 1307.

It was nearly two years after the death of his father, before Edward the First arrived in England; when he was crowned with his queen Eleanor in Westminster Abbey, with extra-

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ordinary splendour. The people rejoiced greatly at his return, for he was regarded as a very brave and noble prince, and so he was; but he was also very ambitious, and fonder of war than of peace, particularly when the object of the war was to extend his dominions.

There are two great events to be recorded in this reign; the one is the conquest of Wales; the other, the war between England and Scotland, in which the renowned Scottish hero, William Wallace, played so conspicuous a part.

The Welsh were still living according to their own ancient and simple customs. They had made but little progress in civilization, and subsisted chiefly on their flocks and herds, and the produce of their land. The southern part of the country had already been partly subdued, for many English barons had, at various times, conquered small tracts of land, and built themselves castles, which were now so numerous that they formed a complete chain of fortresses extending for many miles. But in the north, there was no such check on the liberty of the Welsh people, who were in the habit of carrying on a sort of border warfare with the English. for the sake of plunder; and it was towards this part of the country that Edward the First led his army.

Llewellyn, the prince of North Wales, defended himself for some time in the mountains, but he was at length defeated and slain; and the whole of the country, after a gallant resistance, was obliged to submit. There is no doubt that the Welsh were treated with great cruelty before the conquest was completed. Some say, that the king assembled all the bards together, and put them to death, that their songs might not remind the people of their ancient freedom; but we will hope this is not true, and content ourselves with knowing that Wales was then first divided into shires, was made subject to the English laws, and became a province of England. The greater part of the land was given in fief to the barons who had been engaged in the war; and the king's eldest son,

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who was born in Carnarvon Castle, was called Prince of Wales, which title has ever since distinguished the eldest sons of the monarchs of England.

The reason of this was, the desire of the king to meet the invincible repugnance of the Welsh to be governed by any other than a Welshman. He promised them that this should in future be the case; and to keep his word, his queen, when near her time, removed to Carnarvon Castle, where she was confined; and her child, being a son, was created Prince of Wales. The *ruse* succeeded, for from that time the Welsh have submitted to the English rule.

You are, of course, aware that Scotland had, all this time, been a separate kingdom, governed by sovereigns who were quite independent of the kings of England, with whom they were sometimes at war, sometimes at peace. But it happened just now, that there were two claimants for the Scottish crown, because the late king, Alexander the Third, was dead, and had left no children: the one was Robert Bruce; the other, John Baliol.

Now King Edward thought this would be a good opportunity for him to put in execution a design he had long formed, of uniting Scotland to England: therefore, he first claimed the right of deciding which of the disputants should succeed to the throne; and when this point was settled, he went to war with the new sovereign. I shall not, at present, enter into the history of Scotland, any further than is necessary to make you understand what pretentions Edward had to superiority over the Scots.

One of their kings, William the Lion, had been taken prisoner by Henry the Second, and to gain his liberty, had acknowledged himself the vassal of the English king, and done homage for his kingdom; but Richard the First gave up his right to the suzerainty, that is, to be liege lord of Scotland, for a sum of money; and the Scottish kings, after that, only did homage for the fiefs they held in England. Edward,

however, now revived the claim of sovereignty, and on this ground interfered in the present quarrel between Baliol and Bruce, and decided in favour of the former, on condition that he should hold the kingdom in vassalage, to which Baliol consented, and was crowned accordingly.

The first step being thus gained, Edward soon found an opportunity of declaring that the new king was a disobedient vassal, and that his dominions, in consequence, were forfeited to the English crown. This was the beginning of the long Scottish wars, which are so interesting in the history of Scotland, being interspersed with the wonderful and romantic adventures of Wallace and Bruce, and other heroes, whose names do so much honour to their country.

As soon as Edward had found a sufficient pretext for war, he led his armies into the North, gained several victories over the Scots, and forced the timid Baliol to resign his crown. He then marched through great part of Scotland, to receive the homage of the people, appointed a governor, placed soldiers in the fortresses, and returned to England, with Baliol as a prisoner, feeling quite secure that he was now absolute lord and master of Scotland; but he was mistaken.

Edward the First possessed many noble qualities, but they were sullied by the cruelty and ambition which are almost inseparable from the character of a great warrior. His ambition was exemplified in his conduct towards the Scots; his cruelty, by his treatment of the Jews, who, for the reasons I have before given, were the richest people in the country. The late king had left an empty treasury, and Edward wanted money for the wars; therefore he scrupled not to take it from the unprotected Jews; and after having extorted, by violent means, several large sums, he, at length, seized on all their wealth, and banished the whole people from the kingdom To add to their misfortunes, most of them were plundered, by the sailors on their voyage, of the little money that had been allowed them to pay their passage to a foreign land, so that

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nothing could be more deplorable than their condition. The robbery and banishment of the Jews took place just before the king's first expedition to Scotland, and was certainly a most unjustifiable proceeding; but in all cases we must take into consideration the state of the times, and the prejudices of the people, who thought it no crime to oppress those whose religion differed from their own.

Edward was, in many respects, a good prince towards his own subjects. He had put a stop to the disorders that arose from the bad government of his father; he had forced the barons to observe the laws, and to act with some degree of justice towards their vassals; and he had raised the middle classes of the people to a higher rank in the state, by admitting them to a share in the government; for although the same thing had been done by the earl of Leicester, in the last reign, it was a greater security for the continuance of that privilege, when the king himself decreed that the shires, cities, and boroughs, should send members to parliament, and that no taxes should hereafter be levied, without their consent.

The king, however, does not appear to have been very scrupulous on that point in the early part of his reign, if we may judge from the following circumstance. The parliament, to supply his exigencies, voted a tax of half a mark, or six shillings and eight pence, on every sack of wool exported; but, as the king did not find that sufficient, he raised the tax, by his own authority, to forty shillings. This enormous duty, instead of paying a larger revenue, almost put a stop to the exportation, so that the king did not get as much as he had expected by it; and being much irritated at the disappointment, he seized on every sack of wool in store, and sold it for his own benefit, never making the owners the least compensation for their loss. But notwithstanding such unjust proceedings, the state of society was gradually improving. The feudal system was losing ground; the vassals were

becoming more independent of their lords, and there were fewer bondmen; for many had acquired freedom by escaping from their masters and living in free towns for a year and a day, according to the law I have before mentioned; and the priests had obtained liberty for great numbers, by persuading noblemen, on their death-beds, to make some atonement for their sins, by emancipating their serfs.

But we must now return to the affairs of Scotland. The governors appointed by Edward behaved very tyrannically towards the Scots, who took advantage of the king's absence in France, where he was engaged in a war with Philip the Fair, to make an effort for the recovery of their liberty. The brave chieftain, Wallace, took the lead; thousands of his countrymen rallied round him; and, after many valiant exploits, they gained a complete victory over the English at Stirling, and Wallace was made regent of Scotland.

When King Edward heard of this defeat, he hastened back to England, and collected a larger army than had ever before been seen in the country, with which he marched against the Scots; who were vanquished at the battle of Falkirk. Wallace was betrayed by a false friend, made a prisoner, and brought to London, where he was tried for treason, and executed on Tower-hill.

The death of this noble Scottish chief is considered a great blot on the memory of Edward the First, who ought rather to have respected him as a patriot, than condemned him as a traitor; and perhaps his real feelings would have prompted him to do so, had not the death of Wallace been a measure of policy, that the Scots, being deprived of their brave leader, might be the more easily brought to submission.

The result, however, did not answer his expectation, for the unjust execution of their beloved leader aroused a spirit of revenge in the hearts of the Scots, who soon found another chief in Robert Bruce, the grandson of that Bruce who had been a competitor with Baliol for the crown. The war then

turned in their favour. They took all the castles occupied by the English, gained several victories, and proclaimed Bruce as the lawful king of Scotland, who was crowned with the usual solemnities.

As soon as Edward heard of these reverses, he prepared for a new invasion; and was on his way to meet Bruce's army, when he was taken ill at Carlisle, and died shortly after, at Burgh-upon-Sands, in Cumberland. On his death-bed, he exacted a solemn promise from his son, to continue the war, until Scotland should be conquered; and ordered that his bones should be borne at the head of the army, as a testimony against the Scots, who had sworn fealty to him.

There were a great many good regulations made in the reign of Edward the First, for the purpose of preventing the robberies that had been carried to a most dreadful extent. A watch was established in every town, from sunset to sunrise; and nobody was allowed to be out in the streets of London after the curfew had tolled at St. Martin-le-Grand, (the spot on which the Post-office now stands;) and all the hedges and copses near the great roads were to be kept cut so closely, that no robbers might conceal themselves behind them. But a still better mode was adopted of preventing the depredations of the lower classes, by creating employment. At this period there were no manufactures of any consequence in England, but that of woollen cloth; until, under the patronage of the king, a manufactory was established at Norwich, for making worsted stuffs; a branch of art for which that city was for centuries famous.

There were, at this time, only two clocks in England; the one was placed in an old tower of Westminster-hall, the other in Canterbury cathedral. But they were both of foreign workmanship, and it was not till the time of Edward the Third, that clocks were made in this country.

There lived, in the reign of Edward the First, a friar, named Roger Bacon, whose genius was far in advance of

that unenlightened period. He made great discoveries in science; was acquainted with the use of magnifying glasses, which were afterwards applied to the important purposes of making telescopes, microscopes, and reading-glasses; and he was acquainted with the rules of arithmetic, which were then so little known, that any one having the slightest knowledge of figures, was looked upon as one of the wonders of the age.

Roger Bacon seems to have been aware that the mind of man was capable of much greater attainments than it had yet achieved; for, in his writings, he says, that machines might be made to mount into the air, and carriages to go without horses, &c.; and he also made many chemical experiments, which might then have been of great benefit in advancing civilization, had they not been discountenanced by the ignorance and prejudice of the times. His works are still extant, and most of them have been published.

In the year 1291, Queen Eleanor died in Lincolnshire, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. The king had been much attached to her; and, wherever the body rested, on its way to Westminster, he erected a magnificent cross, as a memorial. I mention this circumstance, because Waltham-cross, Tottenham-cross, and Charing-cross, were among these pious monuments. The two former are still standing, but the last was pulled down when the monasteries were destroyed, in the time of Henry the Eighth; and on the spot where it stood was afterwards erected the statue of King Charles the First, on horseback.

King Edward endowed the abbey with rich gifts, for the purpose of having masses said for his deceased queen, and of having waxen tapers kept perpetually burning at her tomb. These pious usages were continued till the time of Henry the Eighth, when the Reformation put an end to that and other customs of the Catholic church.

EDWARD THE SECOND.

1307 to 1327.

THE first subject of interest at this period was the Scottish war; but the Scots had lost their most formidable foe in Edward the First, whose son was neither a warrior nor a statesman. The chief attention of this monarch was devoted to pleasure, and he delighted in the society of the thoughtless idle young noblemen, who could amuse him by their lively accomplishments; and to one, in particular, named Piers Gaveston, he was so liberal in his favours, that he displeased most of the great barons, and brought severe misfortunes upon himself.

Unmindful of the promise he had made to his dying father, to carry on the war with Scotland, and to do every thing in his power to conquer that country, Edward the Second was no sooner on the throne, than he disbanded the troops that had been raised for the invasion; and these men, having then nothing to do, formed themselves into bands of robbers, like the free companies in France, and their numbers were multiplied in consequence of a famine, which obliged the nobles to dismiss a great many of their retainers, because every article of food was so scarce and dear, they could not afford to keep them.

During this time, the Scots were carefully guarding against future danger, by strengthening their castles, and keeping their fighting men in readiness: and these precautions showed their wisdom, for Edward, whose favourite, Gaveston, had been seized and beheaded by the angry nobles, was, at last, induced to prepare for an invasion of Scotland. He sent to Ireland, Wales, Flanders, and Gascony, to raise troops, and crossed the borders at the head of a hundred thousand men,

while Bruce, who was then king of Scotland, could only muster about thirty thousand.

The well known song

"Scots wha hae wi' Wallace bled?"

is intended to express the address of the gallant Bruce to his army, before the battle of Bannockburn, which was fought in the month of June, 1314, and gained by the Scots, notwithstanding the inferiority of their numbers. The English had never met with a more terrible defeat than this, for they had made quite sure of victory; and the event of the battle of Bannockburn is remembered with pride by the Scots to this very day.

One of the most remarkable events that occurred in the reign of Edward the Second, was, the suppression of the military monks, called Knights Templars, whose order was instituted at the beginning of the Holy wars, that its members might guard the sacred temple at Jerusalem. As long as crusading was in fashion, the Knights of the Temple were considered the great champions of Christendom, and their order was enriched by the donations and bequests of those who thought they were serving the cause of religion, by giving lands and money to its defenders. The Crusades were now entirely given up, but the order of Templars still existed, and numbers of the knights were living in great splendour in every part of Europe. Their immense wealth had excited the jealousy and avarice of many princes, and, among others, of Philip the Fair of France, who persuaded the Pope to issue a decree for the abolition of the order, on pretence that the brethren had accumulated riches by very wicked means; and it is melancholy to read the sufferings they endured in France, on account of these accusations, which are supposed to have been, in most instances, quite false, and in others much exaggerated.

There were, at this time, about two hundred and thirty Templars living in magnificent style in various parts of Eng-

land, one of their chief residences being the Temple, in Fleet-street. They were not treated in this country with the cruelty they experienced in France: they were neither tortured, nor put to death; but all their property was confiscated; and, after some months of imprisonment in different castles, they were allowed to enter monasteries, and a small pension was granted to each for his support.

With the exception of the Scottish war, and the suppression of the Templars, the incidents in the reign of Edward the Second are very uninteresting. The king was of a weak mind, totally unfit for the high station to which he was born, and as that was a misfortune rather than a fault, we cannot but pity his untimely fate. After several years of misgovernment, the barons again rebelled against him, and, incredible as it may appear, his own wife, the queen Isabella, a daughter of Philip the Fair, raised troops in the Netherlands, and joined the disaffected nobles. The king fled for refuge to South Wales, but he was pursued, made prisoner, and after suffering much cruel treatment, during a confinement of nine months in Kenilworth and other castles, was at last murdered in Berkeley castle, on the banks of the river Severn, in the twentieth year of his reign.

EDWARD THE THIRD.

1327 to 1377.

THIS great and warlike prince was only fifteen, when the deposition and miserable death of his father left him in possession of the kingdom. As he was too young to conduct

the government, a regency of fourteen persons was appointed by parliament: but his mother, and one of the barons, named Mortimer, took all the authority into their own hands; while the young king went on an expedition against the Scots, who were still carrying on a border warfare with the English.

The Scottish monarch, Robert Bruce, was now quite an old man, yet he still led his troops to the field, and they had penetrated into the northern counties of England, from which Edward hoped to expel them. The Scots, though generally inferior in point of numbers, had many advantages over the English, on account of their hardy mode of life. They could subsist on almost any kind of food, and every river or brook supplied them with drink. Each man carried a flat piece of iron upon his saddle, and a bag of oatmeal behind him, so that when he had nothing else to eat, he could anywhere bake his oatmeal. Their wild ponies and galloways were as hardy as themselves, and could feed on the coarsest herbage. The English, on the contrary, were obliged to carry with them wine and provisions for the whole army; and if these failed, or were taken from them, they were reduced to the greatest distress, and were not in a condition to fight.

The Scots were never impeded by the roughness of the country; for, accustomed as they were to their own wild glens and mountains, they could find places of retreat to which the English could not follow them. Sometimes they would vanish altogether, and leave the enemy quite at a loss to guess what direction they had taken; then, when it was supposed they were far distant, they would suddenly re-appear, and attack the English unawares.

On one occasion, young Edward, impatient to come to an engagement, caused it to be proclaimed through the camp, that if any one could find out where the Scots were concealed, he would give him a heritage worth a hundred pounds a year and make him a knight. A squire named Thomas

Rokeby won the prize; and the king sent a herald to challenge the Scots to fair fight in the open field, but they were not so vain-glorious as to accept it; and, after some skirmishing, the English, wearied out, gave up the war for the present, and retired to York, where the army was disbanded.

While the young king remained at York, he was married to the lady Philippa, a daughter of the count of Hainault, sovereign prince of a large state in the Netherlands. This union gave great satisfaction to the citizens of London, because it was a means of increasing their trade with the rich provinces of the Low Countries, and they testified their joy by spending three weeks in public festivities and presenting the fair bride with a rich service of plate. The nuptials were celebrated at York, and were rendered still more joyful by the presence of all the chief Scottish barons, who came to conclude a treaty of peace between England and Scotland, which they endeavoured to render permanent by the marriage of the infant heir of Scotland, David Bruce, with the little princess, Joanna, Edward's youngest sister.

The king was not yet of age, but his mother, and Mortimer, who was created earl of March, continued to rule as sole regents. They were so much disliked, that the nobles resolved to take the government out of their hands, and place it in those of the youthful sovereign. The queen-mother was, in fact, a very wicked woman, and it was well known that both she and her unprincipled associate were accessory to the murder of the late king. They had governed with great tyranny and injustice, and had been guilty of many unlawful acts, therefore it was agreed to depose them both, and to try the earl for treason against the state. The difficulty was to get possession of his person; for he then lived in a castle at Nottingham, and never went out without a strong guard, for he had a suspicion that he was not safe, and the queen, who lived in the same castle, being afraid that some of her people might admit the earl's enemies in the night, always

took the keys, and placed them by her bedside. But this precaution was unavailing, for there was a subterraneous passage that led from the wood under the castle, and was only known to a few persons, the entrance being blocked up with rubbish. Through this passage, the governor, Sir William Eland, admitted the king and some of the barons in the middle of the night, and earl Mortimer was seized in his bed-chamber, and carried away as a prisoner to London. He was tried by the peers, found guilty of having assumed the royal authority, and executed; and the queen was obliged to retire to Castle Rising, in Norfolk, where she lived many years on a pension allowed her by the king, who did not suffer the remembrance of her crimes to prevent him from performing his duties as a son.

Edward the Third possessed a great deal of wisdom for his years; therefore, as soon as he was in power, he took measures to remedy the distresses of the country, particularly those that were caused by robbery; for which purpose, he sent peremptory orders to all judges to execute the law on all offenders, without regard to their rank. He gave great encouragement to trades and manufactures, that there might be plenty of employment for those who could work; and he made sumptuary laws, to check extravagance in dress and living, nobody being allowed to have more than two kinds of meat at table, except on festival days, nor to wear gold, silver, or silk, unless they could well afford to do so. The queen, too, who was one of the most talented, as well as most beautiful, women of the time, took an active part in promoting the commerce and manufactures of England. She sent to her native country for a number of Flemish weavers, whom she established at Norwich, and, by her exertions, the manufacture of woollen cloths and stuffs was greatly improved and extended. To this illustrious queen, the coal trade owes the commencement of its prosperity, a branch of industry to which she directed her attention at a later period of her

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husband's reign, when she obtained a grant from him for the re-opening of the Tynedale mines, which had been worked in the time of Henry the Third, but were afterwards closed, in consequence of the Scottish wars. Since this period, the coal trade has been one of the most considerable branches of our domestic commerce.

When the king had made a number of prudent regulations for the preservation of good order throughout the kingdom, he found a pretext for renewing the war with Scotland, as he was very desirous of making a conquest of that kingdom, and now had great hopes of doing so, because the great Robert Bruce was dead, and his son David, who had succeeded him, was far inferior in ability as a warrior. Many of the English barons had an interest in promoting this war; for when Edward the First thought he had subjected Scotland, he, in imitation of the Norman William in England, had made numerous grants of land to his great vassals, who were now very anxious to recover them; but Edward wanted a better ground of quarrel against the Scots, and he was not long in finding one. Edward Baliol, the son of that Baliol who was dethroned by Edward the First, had been found in a French prison; and, on pretence of supporting his right to the crown of Scotland, the English once more went to war with that country. At first, they met with some success, but their fortune changed several times · and Edward, at last, seeing no prospect of a speedy conquest, began to think of invading France; therefore he left a small body of soldiers with Baliol, and commenced his preparations for this bold enterprise.

The crown of France was, at this time, an object of contention, as the three sons of Philip the Fair had died without male issue. Queen Isabella, it may be remembered, was the daughter of that monarch, therefore Edward thought he had a very good right to the crown; but such a claim could not be countenanced by the laws of France, where females were excluded from the throne, consequently their children could

derive no right of succession from them. But Edward either did not, or would not, see the case in that light, and chose to dispute the throne with his cousin, Philip of Valois, who was elected king of France. Such were the causes that led to the ruinous wars in France, which lasted nearly forty years, from the king's first invasion in 1339, to the death of the Black Prince in 1376. I have not room to enter into the particulars of these wars, which belong to the history of France rather than to that of England, and derive much of their interest from the gallant exploits of Edward, prince of Wales, called the Black Prince, who conquered nearly the whole of the south of France, where he spent the greater part of his life. In the early part of the war, just after the celebrated victory won at Crecy, by the prince of Wales, then a mere boy, king Edward besieged and captured the town of Calais, which remained subject to England for more than two hundred years.

During the siege of Calais, an army of fifty thousand Scots entered England, under the command of David Bruce, and had advanced as far as Durham, to the great terror of all the inhabitants of the northern counties, when Edward's queen, Philippa, collected as many troops together as she could muster, and placing herself at their head, marched against the Scots, and gained a victory over them at the battle of Nevil's Cross. In this battle, the king, David, was taken prisoner.

The ladies of those times partook in some degree of the warlike spirit of the age, for they were often placed in situations where it was necessary for them to represent their husbands, in order to defend his castles or his lands, during his absence. We might almost infer from this, that the ladies of the fourteenth century were very masculine persons, but such was not the case; as their heroism was the effect of the state of the times, and formed a part of their duty as wives.

The reign of Edward the Third was long and prosperous. He was a distinguished sovereign both in peace and war; but his good government at home was of far more benefit to his subjects, than all his brilliant victories abroad. He called as many as seventy-two parliaments, which, in general, granted him liberal supplies of money for his wars, exacting from him, in return, many laws that were highly beneficial to the country. The king was often much inconvenienced for want of money, and on one occasion, having contracted large debts in Flanders, he was obliged to pledge the queen's crown, and to leave his cousin, the earl of Derby, with some merchants, as a surety for the payment of a considerable sum which he had borrowed. The parliament was not very ready this time to relieve him from his embarrassments; but when he declared that he would go back to Flanders, and surrender himself to his creditors, a supply was granted, not of money, for that was very scarce, but of the fleece of every ninth sheep and lamb throughout the kingdom; and by this means, the crown and the cousin were both redeemed. We may thus perceive that wool still constituted the principal wealth of the country, and was a ready means of raising money, as it could always be sold in Flanders, where all the best broad cloth was, at that time, made.

The Flemings were the friends and allies of king Edward, during the French wars. Both he and the queen were frequently in Flanders; and in the city of Ghent was born their fourth son, John of Ghent, or Gaunt, the famous duke of Lancaster.

The prince of Wales, as already stated, was, for several years, almost constantly in France, engaged in maintaining the conquests he had made. After the death of Philip of Valois, he was at war with king John of France, who was made prisoner in 1356, at the battle of Poictiers, and sent to England as a captive, but was treated with all the honours due to a king. He, and David of Scotland, who was also a

prisoner, were magnificently entertained at Windsor Castle, then newly built, and a grand tournament was held for their amusement, at which they both exhibited their knightly attainments, and our present queen is in possession of the armour which they wore on that occasion. David Bruce, after being detained in England eleven years, was ransomed by his people, and returned to Scotland; but the king of France, who was not so fortunate, died in London, eight years after the battle of Poictiers.

The conquests made in France were of no permanent advantage to England, as the death of the prince of Wales left them without a defender, and the French then speedily recovered all the provinces they had lost. This gallant hero, the Black Prince, returned to his native land in a deep decline, which terminated in his death. He had been always much beloved and admired by the English people, who had looked up to him as their future sovereign, and were deeply grieved at his loss, which brought serious troubles upon the country, for the king, his father, survived him but a few months, and the next heir to the throne was his son Richard, a boy only eleven years of age.

ENGLAND

IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

THE gradual abolition of slavery throughout England had produced the most happy results. Most of those who were emancipated applied themselves to trade, manufactures, and husbandry; and, instead of a despised race of bondmen, became a free and industrious class of tradesmen, artizans, and

labourers, who were no longer separated from their fellow men by any degrading distinction. Edward the Third had freed all the serfs on his manors, when he wanted to raise money for the invasion of France; but slavery was not abolished by law, therefore, most of the nobles still had serfs and vassals on their lands. We may judge of the little freedom that existed in England at this period, by the mode in which Edward the Third procured workmen to build the castle at Windsor. Instead of employing such labourers as he wanted, at regular wages, he issued his royal mandate, that every county in England should send him a specified number of carpenters, masons, and other artificers, to perform the work, as though he had been raising an army of soldiers by a forced conscription.

The working classes in those days were in some respects in a condition better than that in which they are now, for although their wages were not more than three-pence a day, that sum would purchase as much meat and bread as four shillings will buy at the present time, consequently, the humble cottages of the poor presented a degree of plenty and cheerfulness scarcely met with at present among the agricultural labourers; but as wearing apparel was not cheap in proportion, they were more rudely clad and less cleanly than the same class of people are in the present day: and they also existed in a state of the darkest ignorance, such as would be difficult to meet with now in any part of the country. We must not, however, forget that the condition of the working people was much benefitted by the aid so liberally rendered them by the monasteries and clergy of those days, from the ample funds they had at their disposal. But the restrictions to which they were subjected, accord but little with our present ideas of liberty; for no man was allowed to work any where but in the neighbourhood of his own village, except those who lived on the borders of Wales or Scotland, and the inhabitants of Derbyshire, Lancashire, and Staffordshire, who, from time

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immemorial, had enjoyed the exclusive privilege of seeking employment in any part of the country.

There were no shops yet in the country towns, which were but poor places, the best houses in them being rough wooden buildings, with latticed windows; but the mansions of the great were beginning to be built in a very handsome style, adorned with painted glass windows, and the walls and ceilings also painted to imitate tapestry, or hung with that costly material. The chairs and tables were of carved oak, and bedsteads were now commonly used, but, with the exception of those in palaces and noblemen's houses, they were made like a child's crib. The court yards of most great houses and castles had galleries round them, for the convenience of witnessing the exhibitions of travelling actors, who were in the habit of roaming about the country, carrying with them materials for erecting a temporary stage at any place where they might stop. Their performances were called Mysteries, the subjects being taken from Scripture history, and the legends of the saints; and as there were no theatres at that time, those entertainments were much encouraged.

Tournaments were still held in England, as well as other chivalric amusements, called passages of arms, which were of various kinds; as, for example, a baron would send out a herald to proclaim a passage of arms to be held on a given day, before his castle gate, to which all knights inclined to exhibit their valour were invited to repair. Sometimes, a number of knights would join together, and make known that they were ready to encounter an equal number of knightly combatants; and sometimes a single knight gave out that he was prepared to fight in succession with all who chose to break a lance with him. It was the glory of these knights to overcome, one after another, every foe that presented himself, until fatigue obliged them to give up the contest.

At the marriage of Richard the Second with the princess Anne of Bohemia, a splendid tournament, which lasted many

days, was held in Smithfield. The lists were surrounded by pavilions, fitted up for the queen and the ladies of the court; and at the close of each day, the victor was crowned with a golden crown, and the evening concluded with feasting, music, and dancing. On the same occasion, the citizens of London set up a splendid pageant in the Chepe, now Cheapside, of a wooden castle, with fountains of wine running from both its sides.

The taste for pageants and shows of all kinds was universal at that period, and a relic of this ancient pageantry is still visible in our lord mayor's show. The city magistrates of the fourteenth century must have been persons of opulence and high consideration, as we may judge from the fact that Sir Henry Picard, a wine merchant, and lord mayor of London in 1364, invited four sovereigns to dine with him: namely, John of France, David of Scotland, Edward of England, and Peter, king of Cyprus, who had come to England on a visit; and the lady mayoress entertained a company of illustrious ladies at the same time. This circumstance is a striking proof that the marked line of distinction that formerly separated the nobles from the citizens, no longer existed, which is of itself an evidence of the great progress made in civilisation since the Norman conquest.

I have already mentioned that the rich merchants of the city had country houses in the Strand, which was the high road between London and Westminster, where there were also many noblemen's palaces, with gardens sloping down to the river side; but the road was so bad between Temple-bar and the palace of Westminster, which adjoined Westminster-hall, that Edward the Third made a law to oblige the owners of those mansions to keep it in repair, and this was the first impost collected in England for mending the highways, and a most necessary tax it was, as the roads were often in such a condition as to be almost impassable. The streets were neither paved nor lighted at that time; but on any grand festival it

appears that gravel was laid down, since we read that on the occasion of a tournament being held in the Chepe, to celebrate the birth of the prince of Wales, the road was strewed with sand, to prevent the horses from slipping.

It was in the Chepe, or Cheapside, that the retail tradesmen of London had their shops, which were only stalls or booths, covered in at the top, and ranged in rows, like the stalls at a fair, where they usually dealt in a great variety of articles. They came to these shops in the morning, and returned to their homes at night in the narrow streets of the city, where the houses were all built of wood. That fine part of the town which we now call the West-end, did not then exist, all beyond Charing Cross to the north being fields and country roads. The city dames of those days, when they wished to make purchases, used to send for their mercer, tailor, or jeweller, from the Chepe, to bring them such goods as they required; while the ladies of the court were supplied from the king's wardrobe, a sort of magazine for wearing apparel, superintended by a particular officer, who could not deliver any thing without a particular order from the king, so that the queen herself was obliged to consult her royal consort, when she had an occasion for a new garment; and a strict account was kept of the expenses incurred for wearing apparel. The records are still preserved, wherein it may be read that King John gave an order for five ells of green cloth, to make a pelisse for the queen, with fur to trim the same, and for four pairs of embroidered boots, to be given out from the royal wardrobe; and innumerable entries of the same kind in the books that were kept for that purpose, shew that the queen and ladies of the court depended upon the taste and liberality of the monarch for the fashion and cost of their outward adornments.

It was about this time that beaver hats were first worn in England. These hats, which were broad and low-crowned, were made in Flanders, and took the place of the close cloth

caps previously worn. The usual dress of the middle classes was a tunic with tight sleeves, tight pantaloons, and short boots. Gloves were more commonly worn than they had hitherto been.

The principal manufacture of the country was that of woollen cloth, which furnished employment for many thousands of persons; yet the parliament, by some strange oversight, or perhaps with the mistaken idea of making it cheaper, prohibited the exportation of English cloth, forgetting how many more hands might be employed in weaving, if the produce of their labours could find a market abroad. England had always been famous for the quantity and excellence of its wool, which was the principal article of export to other countries; and the churchmen, with whom it had been customary to feed sheep on their own lands, had long been in the habit of keeping trading vessels, in which they sent their wool to foreign markets, bringing from thence, in return, some few manufactures, but principally large quantities of corn; so that some of the bishops, and abbots, were the greatest wool merchants and corn importers in the kingdom. But the parliament interfered in this also, and the clergy, about the same time, were prohibited from engaging in mercantile pursuits.

In the reign of Edward the Third, there were, at Bristol, three brothers, who were eminent clothiers and woollen weavers, and whose family name was Blanket. They were the first persons who set up looms to make that comfortable material, which has ever since been called by their name, and which was then used for peasants' clothing.

There were a few trades at this period confined entirely to females, and, singular as it may appear, all the brewers and bakers were women; and when men first began to engage in these occupations, it was thought so strange, that they were called men brewers, and men bakers. Dyeing colours was also an art practised only by females, and great numbers of

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women were employed in weaving, so that they were at no loss for the means of earning their bread.

Learning had as yet made little progress beyond the church and the cloister, so that, with the exception of the religious orders, but few persons, even of the highest rank, were acquainted with the arts of reading and writing.

RICHARD THE SECOND.

1377 to 1399.

AMONG the many monarchs who have ruled over England, Richard the Second was one of the most unfortunate, for he ascended the throne at too tender an age to have profited by the example of his predecessor; he had lost a good father, in Edward the Black Prince, who, had he lived, might have instilled the principles of virtue and wisdom into his youthful mind; and he was under the control of three harsh, ambitious uncles, who had little or no affection for him. To add to these disadvantages, the task of governing the lower orders of the people was now very difficult, for the greater part of them had become their own masters, and were not backward in asserting their rights as freemen; while those who still remained in bondage, felt that they ought to be free, as well as others, and were discontented accordingly.

When Richard was about sixteen, there was a fearful insurrection among the labouring classes, headed by a man, named Walter the Tiler, often called Wat Tiler, who is generally described as a blacksmith, but I believe his chief occupation was that of tiling the roofs of houses, for tiles were now

often used instead of thatch. Walter might probably have worked at both trades; but I think I may venture to say that he derived his surname from his business of tiling; and he gained his celebrity by being the leader of a rebellion that broke out in consequence of a new tax of one shilling on every person in the kingdom, above the age of fifteen. This was called the poll tax, and caused great complaints among the working classes, because their wages being, at that time, not more than from twopence to threepence per day, a shilling for every individual in a family, above fifteen years of age, was, to them, a considerable sum; and they considered it unjust that the poor man should have to pay as much as the rich. The collectors, therefore, often had to enforce the payment by brutal violence, which being resented, frequently ended in a serious affray; and it was on one of these occasions that a tax-gatherer was killed by Tiler, whose neighbours immediately gathered around him, with a view to protect him from the consequences of the act. Some person among the crowd then began to harangue the assemblage about the tyranny of their rulers, and advised them to rebel; upon which, the whole party, with Tiler at their head, set off for London, and were joined by multitudes on their way. The labouring men of Essex, and the other eastern counties, had previously risen in arms against this oppressive tax.

This formidable army of rioters entered the metropolis, where they broke into the houses, forced open the doors of the prisons, set the inmates at liberty, and killed many persons of high rank, their violence being directed particularly against those nobles and prelates who, it was supposed, had influenced the levying of this obnoxious tax. The animosity of the rebels also extended itself towards foreign artisans, against whom the lower orders of the English, in their ignorance, held a violent prejudice; for instead of seeing that these foreigners, by introducing new arts, improved the state of trade, and created more employment for all, they hated them,

because they could obtain more work and better wages than themselves.

At last, the king, attended by some of his nobles, rode into Smithfield, to meet this terrible mob, and demanded what they wanted; when Wat Tiler, their leader, replied, that they desired that he would abolish bondage, or slavery; allow trade to be carried on in all the fairs and markets, free of duties; do away with the feudal custom of holding land for services instead of rent, so that the "villains" should be freed from vassalage, and no longer be bound to the estate on which they dwelt; and that he should grant a general pardon to all. These demands were not unreasonable, considering the state of society, so different from what it was some centuries before this period, and the king promised that they should all be granted; but the rebel chief not being satisfied with his bare word, insisted that the promise should be given in writing; a demand to which the king did not immediately reply. While he was yet hesitating, Tiler was observed to be playing with the hilt of his dagger in a menacing manner, and appeared about to seize on the king's bridle; when the lord mayor, who was in attendance, came behind him, and struck him from his horse by a blow with his mace, and he was instantly dispatched by one of the king's esquires.

This act had nearly proved fatal to Richard and his train, for some of the mob presently raised their bows and arrows; when the king galloped forward alone, and addressed them with so much spirit, that a shout of applause followed, and they accompanied him, at his request, into the adjoining fields, where he gave them, signed by his own hand, the charters they had demanded; upon which they dispersed without further mischief; but I am sorry to add, that the king broke the promises he had made, as soon as the danger was over, and sent judges, accompanied with troops of soldiers, into the districts which had revolted, and cruelly executed upwards of one thousand five hundred persons who had been

engaged in the riots. Thus the grievances of the people, instead of being redressed, were rather increased; and as the king grew older, he shewed himself so weak-minded, tyrannical, and extravagant, that he became very unpopular among his subjects of every class; so that when his cousin, Henry of Bolingbroke, usurped the throne, it was a cause of rejoicing, rather than of sorrow, to the whole nation.

Like Edward the Second, Richard was entirely influenced by worthless favourites, whose ill management of public affairs occasioned discontent among the nobility and great landholders, who, twice during this reign, took up arms in defence of the liberties of the country. On one occasion, the king, not finding his revenues sufficient to support his expenses, desired the citizens of London to lend him a large sum of money, which they refused to do, because they knew he never would repay it; on which he took away the charter of the city, thus depriving the inhabitants of all their rights and privileges; nor would he restore it, until they had given him ten thousand pounds, and two golden crowns, and had made the most humble submission.

The thoughtless profusion in which the monarch indulged, led him to raise money by various illegal means. He summoned parliaments, taking care that they should be composed of men who would not oppose his will; and he obliged almost all the rich men in the kingdom to lend him money; which he had no intention of returning.

But the worst act of King Richard was, the murder of his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, who was put to death by his command, under circumstances of the most cruel treachery. This nobleman had placed himself at the head of those who were opposed to the government; and he was displeased at the second marriage of the king, who, after the death of his first queen, Anne, married Isabella of Valois, a child only nine years of age, and daughter of the French king, Charles the Sixth. The duke, and several other great men, were

opposed to this alliance with France, thinking it would have been better to continue the war with that country, and soon after his marriage, Richard had reason to suspect that a conspiracy was on foot to separate him from his infant bride, and even to deprive him of his throne. The suspected parties were accused of treason; the archbishop of Canterbury and the earl of Warwick were banished, the earl of Arundel was beheaded, and the duke of Gloucester, whom the king was afraid to put to death publicly, on account of his popularity, was privately executed at Calais; while the favourites of the king were enriched with the confiscated estates of the sufferers.

Soon after this, a rebellion broke out in Ireland, and the king again had recourse to such arbitrary means of raising money for an expedition to that country, that the discontent of the people was again excited; and an incident occurred just before his departure, that afforded an opportunity for the revolution that was about to take place.

One of Richard's uncles, John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, had a son, called Henry of Bolingbroke, earl of Hereford, of whom the king was jealous, for Bolingbroke was much beloved by the people, and being so near related to the king, it was not improbable that he might aspire to the throne, if Richard should have no children. This young nobleman having been told, as he declared, by the duke of Norfolk, that the king had a design upon his life, accused the duke of treason, in the open parliament; on which, Norfolk denied the charge, called him a false traitor, and threw down his gauntlet, which was the usual mode of giving a challenge, in those days; and it was agreed that the quarrel should be decided by single combat. Every preparation was made for this battle, which it was intended should be fought in the presence of the king, according to the usages of the age; but when the appointed day arrived, and the disputants, armed and mounted, rode into the field, Richard forbade the fight, and passed sentence of banishment on them both. The duke

of Norfolk was exiled for life, but the earl of Hereford only for ten years, and a promise was given him that his estates should be all restored to him on his return.

Soon after this, the duke of Lancaster died, and the banished earl of Hereford succeeded to his title, but not to his estates; for the king, in violation of his word, seized on all the lands and other property which had belonged to the duke of Lancaster. This was an act of such flagrant injustice towards the exile, that every body was indignant at it, and thought worse of the king than they had done before. When Henry of Bolingbroke, now duke of Lancaster, heard what had been done, he returned to England, determined to fight for his inheritance; and, landing in Yorkshire, with about sixty knights, was soon joined by the most powerful of the English nobles. This happened while the king was in Ireland; and, as the duke of Lancaster soon found that the people would rather have him to rule over them, than the weak, yet oppressive sovereign, who knew so little how to govern a great nation, he took every advantage of Richard's absence, to promote his own ambitious views, and with so much success, that when the king returned, he was forced, after much ill-treatment, to resign the crown to his more popular cousin.

The fate of Richard the Second is not exactly known. The unhappy monarch was kept as a prisoner in Pontefract castle; but when or how he died, are circumstances that are still involved in mystery. That he was wretched and neglected, there is little doubt; and, as his errors proceeded from weakness of character, and a bad education, rather than from a depraved heart, we can only pity his misfortunes, and hope that his death was not hastened by violence.

One of the most useful events that happened in this reign, was the establishment of a company of linen-weavers, who came from the Netherlands, to settle in this country.

The merchants of London were growing still more and

more opulent, and one of the most considerable among them was Richard Whittington, of whom everybody has heard. He was made lord mayor in the last year of the reign of Richard the Second; but I hope the reader will not be disappointed to hear that he was the son of a knight, and not a poor kitchen lad, as the old story tells us. The real Whittington was a great coal-merchant, who amassed a large share of wealth by his own industry; and if he did possess a cat, I assure you she does not figure in history as the maker of her master's fortune.

A great trade was carried on at this period between the English and Dutch or Flemish merchants. It was all transacted at the Flemish fairs, where the English carried their wool to exchange for haberdashery, grocery, which did not then include tea, and mercery of all kinds. Respectable Flemish merchants used to walk about the streets of London and Westminster, like pedlars, offering their goods, which consisted mostly of hats and spectacles, to the passengers, calling aloud "What will you buy?" a mode of trading that was not thought any degradation at that period.

HENRY THE FOURTH.

1399 to 1413.

Soon after King Henry was crowned, a conspiracy was formed among some of the nobles to reinstate the deposed monarch, but it failed; and three weeks afterwards, on its being known that Richard was dead, a suspicion arose that he had been murdered, and that Henry had been the contriver of his death. But although Richard was no longer in existence, Henry was still an usurper, for there was a young

nobleman, Edmund, earl of March, who had a better right to the crown than he had, being descended from Lionel, duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward the Third; whereas Henry's father was the fourth son of Edward the Third; and it is obvious that the descendants of an elder brother have an hereditary right to any estate, whether a farm, a manor, or a kingdom, in preference to those of a younger brother. You must notice this circumstance, as it was the cause, afterwards, of the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, which form an important part of English history.

Some of the noblemen concerned in the late conspiracy for the restoration of Richard, were put to death; yet it was not long before another insurrection took place, in Wales, the leader of which was a famed knight, called Owen Glendower, who had been an esquire to Richard the Second, and was too faithfully attached to the memory of his unfortunate master to remain at the court of the new king. He had therefore retired to his little estate of Glendowry, in Wales, where he was looked up to with wonder by the poor peasantry, who thought he must be a magician, because he had acquired some book-learning, having studied at the university of Oxford, and in the courts of law in London.

Now there was a nobleman, called Lord Grey de Ruthyn; whose estate joined that of Owen; and he, thinking that he was the more powerful of the two, seized on part of his neighbour's property. Glendower, at first, sent a petition to parliament that his land might be restored; but no notice being taken of it, he collected a band of brave Welshmen, drove Ruthyn from his estate, and took some of his people prisoners. The king, hearing of this, declared Owen an outlaw; on which, the fiery Welshman boldly affirmed that he was the lawful sovereign of Wales, as being descended from the ancient kings of that country; and no sooner had he made this declaration, than the Welsh people flocked to his standard, hoping to regain their independence.

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About the same time, the Scots were making incursions into the north of England, under the command of Archibald, earl of Douglas, who was made prisoner at the battle of Homildon-hill, with several other Scottish noblemen, by the earl of Northumberland, and his son, the celebrated Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur. Prisoners of such high rank as Douglas and his companions, were a great prize to their captors, because a large ransom was sure to be offered for their release; and, as it was one of the privileges of the English nobles to have the disposal of their captives, they sometimes obtained large sums of money by such a proceeding. The king, however, for reasons of his own, sent his commands to Percy, forbidding him to give up the prisoners on any terms; at which the earl was so highly offended that he joined with Owen Glendower, and resolved, if possible, to dethrone Henry. On this occasion, was fought the great battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur was killed, and the king gained a decisive victory.

For a long time after this, the prince of Wales, afterwards Henry the Fifth, carried on a war against Owen Glendower, and, by degrees, reduced the Welsh to submission; but their proud and valiant chief never yielded to the conqueror, and even when deserted by all his followers, he maintained his own freedom among the mountains, until his death, which did not take place for many years afterwards.

Meanwhile, the king had endeavoured to secure peace with the Scots, by the following stratagem: The young prince James, son of Robert Stewart, king of Scotland, had sailed on his voyage to France, where it was intended he should receive his education. The vessel, however, chanced to touch on the coast of Norfolk, when the prince was detained and taken to the court of Henry, who ungenerously kept him there, thinking that the Scots would not dare to commit any hostilities, so long as he had their prince in his power. However, it is only fair to say, that the royal youth was treated with

kindness, and received as good an education as those times afforded. He remained in England about eighteen years, and having married Lady Jane Beaufort, the daughter of the earl of Somerset, returned with his queen to Scotland, where he reigned, under the title of James the First.

It was during the reign of Henry the Fourth, that people were first persecuted in England for their religious opinions, and as this was the real beginning of that change which we call the Reformation, I must give you some account of it. In the latter part of the reign of Edward the Third, a priest, named Wycliffe, began to preach against some of the rules and doctrines of the Catholic church, and among other objections, he affirmed that the pope assumed too much power. Many persons, convinced by his reasoning, adopted the same sentiments; so that in the reign of Richard the Second, the number of Wycliffe's followers, who went by the name of Lollards, had very much increased.

Wycliffe was now dead, and the clergy were naturally desirous that his doctrines should be forgotten; and as the king was anxious to preserve the favour of the church, as one great means of supporting him on his usurped throne, he issued severe decrees against the Lollards. I am sorry to say that king Henry made a law condemning all who persisted in the new faith to be burnt alive; and this cruel punishment was inflicted on several persons during his reign, and that of his son, Henry the Fifth; and thus commenced, in England, those shocking executions that afterwards became so common.

It is surprising to hear of the fortitude with which people suffered death for the sake of their religion. There was a tailor in London, who was arrested and tried for Lollardism, and condemned to the dreadful punishment of the flames. The prince of Wales was present at the execution of this man, and endeavoured with benevolent anxiety to persuade him to renounce his opinions; but the tailor was firm; and although he looked with horror on the stake at which he was

to be consumed alive, he would not renounce his belief. After the fire had been kindled, the Prince offered him a pension for life, if he would return to his old faith; but neither arguments nor promises had any effect upon him, and he met his shocking fate rather than profess what he did not believe.

This humane conduct on the part of the prince of Wales exhibits his character in an amiable point of view; nevertheless, during the earlier periods of his life, he was addicted to dissipation, and was blamed by every one for the irregular life which he led. He spent much of his time in taverns, with a set of idle men who were not fit companions for any respectable person, much less for a prince who was one day to be the sovereign of the realm. The whole party used often to go into the highways, and rob everybody they met, and were guilty of other extravagances. Yet notwithstanding these irregularities, the prince was generous and brave, and when he succeeded to the throne, he gave up all idle pursuits, discarded his former depraved associates, and, as a monarch, was equally respected and beloved.

In the eighth year of the reign of Henry the Fourth, the parliament passed a new charter or law, which more clearly defined the rights both of the sovereign and of the people; and although it was often set aside, or little respected by some of the succeeding sovereigns, yet it was frequently appealed to, and revived, and is considered to have been the foundation of the famous Bill of Rights granted in the reign of William the Third.

Henry the Fourth died at Westminster, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

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HENRY THE FIFTH.

1413 to 1422.

I MUST now recall your attention to the troubled state of France at the time when Henry the Fifth ascended the English throne. The whole kingdom was in a most distressed condition, in consequence of civil wars; while the king of France, Charles the Sixth, was in a state of mental derangement, which rendered him incapable of governing his turbulent people. Henry the Fifth, being young and enterprising, took this opportunity of reviving the claim formerly made by Edward the Third to the crown of France, asserting that the kingdom had belonged of right to the kings of England, ever since the death of Philip the Fair, whose daughter was the mother of Edward the Third.

Though his claims were unfounded, he was glad to avail himself of them as a pretext for invading France, and he commenced his preparations with great activity. The mode of raising an army was not the same as in former times, when the king used to summon his barons, with their vassals, to follow him to the field; for the feudal system, as far as regarded war, was much modified, and the troops consisted of freemen, who were paid by the day. These men, however, did not form a standing army, according to the system of the present time, but they were soldiers only as long as the wars lasted; and when their services were no longer required, they were discharged, and returned to their former occupations.

Henry the Fifth is renowned as the conqueror of France. He fought and won the great battle of Agincourt, in which the French army was four times larger than his own; and much applause has been bestowed on him for this great achievement; but it is not just to speak of the glorious deeds and good qualities of a conqueror, without telling of his bad actions also; and few indeed are the victories that have not been sullied by some deeds of cruelty.

After the battle was over, a party of French peasants made an attack on the baggage of the English army, on which a cry was raised that the French had received reinforcements, and were about to renew the fight. Henry was alarmed, for many of his soldiers had fallen in the field, and the rest were fatigued, and not in a condition to stand against fresh troops; so he hastily consulted his officers as to what was the best course to pursue in this emergency; when some of them advised that all the prisoners should be instantly destroyed; as they were so numerous, that if they should happen to be released by any sudden turn in the fortunes of the day, they would of themselves form a considerable army.

In consequence of this apprehension, and without perhaps having sufficient time to reflect on the barbarity of the act, the king gave orders that every man should kill his prisoners; but the soldiers hesitated, for they had been calculating how much money they might obtain for their ransom, as many were of high rank; when Henry, therefore, perceived their unwillingness to obey his commands, he sent an officer, with two hundred men, to collect the unfortunate captives, and put them to death. A vast slaughter of the prisoners had thus been barbarously made, when it was discovered that the alarm was false; on which the king immediately countermanded his cruel order, but it was then too late; for the greater part of the victims were already dead, and those who survived were almost all wounded and mutilated in a dreadful manner. It

is true that Henry felt much remorse at having been so precipitate; for it certainly was an act of barbarity, that no circumstances could justify or excuse, although it was committed by one of the most renowned of our English neroes.

On the return of the king to London, after the splendid battle of Agincourt, he was conducted in triumph through the city, and presented by the lord mayor and aldermen with two large golden basins full of money, as an offering from the citizens. He remained in England two years, for the purpose of raising more men and money to renew the war; and, during that time, he made many regulations for the general benefit of his subjects. Yet this otherwise good and great sovereign, with all the bigotry of the age, permitted the continued persecution of the Lollards, many of whom were burnt in Smithfield, during his reign.

When Henry had recruited his army and finances, he returned to France, where he made such rapid conquests, that he soon found himself master of the country, and the French were glad to make peace with him on his own terms, which were, that he should marry the princess Catherine, daughter of Charles the Sixth, and succeed to the crown of France on the death of that monarch, who was now an old man. The young and beautiful bride accompanied her husband to England, and was crowned in Westminster Abbey in the year 1421.

At the coronation feast of Catherine, of France, was present the captive king of Scotland, James the First, who, on that occasion, obtained his liberty through the intercession of the queen, on condition that he should serve under the banner of king Henry until the subjugation of France was completed; for, although Henry and the French king had made peace, there were many parts of the country where Henry's right of succession was not recognised by the people, who were not willing to see the son of their king deprived of his inheritance.

nor to submit to the government of a foreign prince. Their opposition was immaterial to Henry the Fifth, since his dream of ambition was suddenly terminated by death, about two years after his marriage with Catherine, and while the king was yet alive. The latter survived this event only two months, and immediately upon his death a fearful war commenced in France, between the partizans of the infant king of England, Henry the Sixth, and those of the dauphin, Charles, who was eventually restored to the throne.

This war is memorable for the active part taken in it by the Maid of Orleans, to whom Charles the Seventh was chiefly indebted for his restoration; but the events of the contest in France belong to the history of that country; and all that need be said about them in this place is, that during the minority of Henry the Sixth, all the territories conquered by his father, at the cost of many thousands of lives, and vast sums of money, were regained by the French; so that Henry the Fifth derives his fame, as a hero, from a most unprofitable conquest.

HENRY THE SIXTH.

THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1422 to 1461.

I AM now about to relate the events of the civil war in England, known by the name of the "Wars of the Roses," which spread misery and desolation throughout the country, and, reckoning from the first battle of St. Alban's, to the battle of Bosworth Field, lasted for the long period of thirty

years. Twelve pitched battles were fought in various parts of the kingdom during this unhappy contest, which cost the lives of no less than eighty princes, and almost annihilated the ancient nobility.

The war was occasioned by the pretensions of the duke of York to the throne of England, on the ground that he was descended from an elder branch of the family of Edward the Third. To explain this, you will observe that Edward the Third had several sons, one of whom, the duke of Lancaster, was, as we have already seen, the father of Henry the Fourth, consequently, great grandfather of the reigning sovereign. It happened, however, that Lionel, duke of Clarence, an elder brother of the duke of Lancaster, had left an only daughter, Philippa, married to Mortimer, earl of March, and of their descendants only one male heir was left, and he was Richard, duke of York, who now laid claim to the English crown.

In all such quarrels, each party is sure to find supporters; and the duke of York was married to the daughter of Ralph Neville, the great earl of Westmoreland, by which alliance he had gained many powerful friends among the English nobility. He was, in fact, the next heir to the crown, if Henry the Sixth should die without children; but as the young king married soon after he came of age, the duke thought it wise to assert his claim at once; and coming over from his government of Ireland, collected an army in Wales, and, at length, he declared the king an usurper, and began to take measures for his own elevation to the throne. Such was the commencement of the civil war, which was called the Wars of the Roses, because the adherents of the house of York chose for their ensign or badge, a white rose; while those of the house of Lancaster adopted a red one; and thus the most delicate flowers that adorn the face of nature, were converted into emblems of strife and bloodshed.

Of all the great men that took part in this quarrel none was so distinguished as the earl of Warwick. He was one of the

last of those powerful English barons who formerly possessed so much influence in the country, and he was able to raise an army strong enough to ensure success to either party; nor is this surprising, when we are told that he entertained at table, every day, in his different castles, as many as thirty thousand persons; and at his palace in Warwick-lane London, his retainers were so numerous, that six oxen were eaten every morning at breakfast. This great earl gave his support to the duke of York.

On the other side, the war was carried on by the queen, for Henry was rather weak of intellect, and not possessed of much courage; therefore his queen, Margaret of Anjou, a spirited Frenchwoman, supplied his place at the head of the kingdom; and it is remarkable, that during the civil wars of this reign, both in France and England, the royalists were under the direction of a female; the one heroine being Joan of Arc; the other, Margaret of Anjou.

Several battles had been fought, and Henry had been twice made prisoner, but the parliament still refused to acknowledge the duke of York as the true king of England during the life of the reigning prince. At length, with a view of restoring peace, it was arranged that the king should enjoy his dignity for life, on condition of acknowledging the duke and his heirs as his successors.

But Henry had now an infant son, whose mother, the queen Margaret, was highly indignant at a treaty that excluded her child from the throne; she therefore fled with him to Scotland, and, prevailing on the nobles of the north to arm for the house of Lancaster, was very soon at the head of twenty thousand men. When the duke of York received intelligence of the queen's proceedings, he led his army towards the north, and met her at Wakefield, where a battle was fought, in which the duke was slain; and here Margaret shewed the bad feelings of her heart, for she caused his head to be cut off, and to be encircled with a paper crown, in

ridicule of his pretensions to the throne, and exposed on the walls of York; but this wanton mockery of the dead disgusted those who witnessed it, and turned the hearts of many from her cause.

The battle of Wakefield was attended with many disgraceful acts of barbarity, which afford a striking proof of the ferocity of the manners of the English nobles in the fifteenth century. One story, in particular, is thus related: During the engagement, the young earl of Rutland, the second son of the duke of York, a beautiful boy, only twelve years of age, was waiting at some distance from the field, to learn the event of the battle. He was attended by his tutor, a venerable priest, who was very anxious for the safety of his young charge, and who, on hearing that the battle was lost, and his father slain, hurried him from the fatal spot, in the hope of finding some place of concealment; but he was unfortunately overtaken by Lord Clifford, a partizan of the house of Lancaster, who fiercely demanded the name of the boy. The affrighted child fell on his knees, begging for mercy, while the aged priest exhorted the ruffian noble to do him no harm. "He is the son of York," exclaimed Clifford, in a furious tone, "and I will slay him, and all his kin!" and, so saying, he plunged a dagger into the heart of his innocent and defenceless victim, who fell dead at his feet.

The duke of York being dead, Edward, earl of March, his eldest son, succeeded to his title, and, aided by the earl of Warwick, continued the war. Engagements took place in different parts of the country, and the duke of York won a battle at Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, almost at the same time that Warwick was defeated at St. Alban's, by queen Margaret, who, in consequence of this victory, released her husband, who had been for some time a captive in the hands of his enemies.

In the battle of Mortimer's Cross, fell Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, who had married Catherine of France, the

widow of Henry the Fifth, and their grandson afterwards reigned in England by the title of Henry the Seventh, as I shall have occasion to notice hereafter.

When Margaret had won the battle of St. Alban's, she proceeded towards London, which was in the possession of the earl of Warwick; but Edward, in order to prevent her from entering the capital, made rapid marches from Hereford; so that she soon found herself between two hostile armies, and was obliged to retreat once more towards the north, while Edward rode triumphantly into the city.

A few days afterwards, there was a review of his troops in St. John's Fields, adjoining Smithfield, and crowds of people were assembled to witness it, when the bishop of Exeter took the opportunity of addressing them on the subject of Edward's right to the crown, compared his warlike character with the spiritless disposition of Henry, and ended by asking which they would have for their king, when he was answered with shouts of "Long live king Edward the Fourth!" and the new monarch, thus chosen by the voice of the multitude, was immediately proclaimed in the usual manner.

But the question was not yet decided, for the queen had raised another large army in the north, and Edward and Warwick were again obliged to take the field. Two more battles, the one at Towton, the other at Hexham, nearly completed the ruin of the House of Lancaster; and Edward was crowned, being then only twenty-one years of age.

A very interesting story is here told respecting the son of that cruel Lord Clifford, who stabbed the young earl of Rutland, in his flight from Wakefield. Clifford was himself killed in a slight skirmish which took place just before the battle of Towton, and his widow, fearing for the safety of her children, managed to conceal them while a strict search was made by order of the king, who no doubt would have imprisoned, or perhaps put them to death. The eldest boy, Henry, was placed under the care of a shepherd, whose wife had been his

nurse, and this faithful couple took the greatest care of him, and brought him up as a shepherd's boy, to avoid suspicion. He was not even taught to read, for his kind protectors were unable to instruct him, and his mother only ventured to pay him a stolen visit now and then. In this humble station, did Henry, lord Clifford, pass his days till the age of thirty-one, when Henry the Seventh was raised to the English throne, and he was restored to his wealth and honours. This nobleman was very unlike his father; the lonely life he had led for so many years had inspired him with a taste for science and learning; and although his education had been so entirely neglected, he had studied astronomy, and spent much of his time in religious meditation. He married a lady of royal blood, and lived beloved and respected to a very advanced age.

We must now return to queen Margaret, who, after the battle of Hexham, fled with her young son to a forest, where she wandered about amid the darkness of the night, unprotected, and exhausted with fatigue, terror, and hunger. In this miserable condition, she saw a robber with a drawn sword coming towards her, when a sudden thought crossed her mind, that this man, notwithstanding his profession, might be serviceable to her. Being a woman of a masculine spirit, she met him without shewing any signs of fear, and placing her little boy in his arms, she said, "My friend, this is the son of your king, and I, his mother, confide him to your protection." The man was not destitute of generous feelings; he conducted the fugitives to a place of concealment, brought them food, and assisted them to escape from the country.

Never did royal lady experience so many vicissitudes as Margaret of Anjou. Accompanied by one faithful knight, with his squire, she sailed for Scotland, and concealed herself and her little son in the town of Kirkcudbright, where she was discovered by one of the Yorkist party, and made prisoner. Her child and two attendants shared the same

fate, and all four were carried on board a vessel, with the intention of being given up to king Edward. The gallant cavalier, however, found means, during the night, to extricate himself and his squire from the cords which had bound them, and although they had five men to contend with, they killed them all. The party thus liberated, landed on the wild coast of Cantire, where they remained unknown, at a poor hamlet, until an opportunity offered of escaping to Flanders, when the queen placed herself and her son under the protection of Philip, duke of Burgundy.

The unhappy king, who was present at the battle of Hexham, made his escape from the field, and was concealed by his adherents for several months in different castles of the north; but being at last betrayed, he was made prisoner, and carried, with many insults, to the Tower of London, where he passed the last seven years of his life, with the exception of one short interval, which only served to render more bitter the remainder of his captivity.

EDWARD THE FOURTH.

1461 to 1483.

ALTHOUGH Edward was conscious that he owed his success to the earl of Warwick, he was imprudent enough to offend that nobleman, who, in return, exerted all his powerful influence to deprive the impetuous prince of the crown he had placed upon his head. The cause of the quarrel was this:—the earl was anxious that the king should connect himself by marriage with some powerful European sovereign, and, by

Edward's desire, went to France, to solicit for him the hand of the princess Bona, of Savoy, a sister-in-law of Louis the Eleventh, king of France.

But while he was absent, the fickle monarch fell in love with a young lady whom he met by chance as he was hunting, and married secretly. The new queen was Elizabeth Woodville, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, a private gentleman, who had fought under the banners of Henry the Fifth. He was afterwards in the service of the duke of Bedford, who was regent of France during the minority of Henry the Sixth, and who conducted the war against the dauphin for his young sovereign and nephew. The duke of Bedford married a princess of Luxemburgh, and left her a widow at the age of seventeen, when she was escorted to England by the above-mentioned Richard Woodville, who contrived to make himself so agreeable to her, that she bestowed her hand on him about the same time that queen Catherine, the widow of Henry the Fifth, married the elegant and accomplished Owen Tudor. These illustrious ladies, who were nearly related, were considered to have degraded themselves very much by these alliances, therefore it was highly displeasing to the nobility that Edward had married Woodville's daughter. Some part of their displeasure might have arisen from jealousy at the favours heaped upon the family of the new queen, whose father was created earl Rivers, and whose brothers and sisters were soon the most distinguished persons at the court. The earl of Warwick was extremely offended at the proceedings of the young king, whom he resolved to punish, by depriving him of the throne.

King Edward had a brother, the duke of Clarence, a prince of a fickle and violent disposition, who disliked all the queen's relatives; and having married a daughter of the earl of Warwick, entered into an alliance with that nobleman for the purpose of dethroning his brother Edward and restoring the poor imbecile Henry the Sixth, who was still a prisoner

the Tower. Louis the Eleventh, of France, was also displeased with Edward's conduct to his sister-in-law, the princess Bona; therefore, he effected a reconciliation between that nobleman and his old enemy, queen Margaret.

All being arranged, Warwick openly avowed his intentions, and, at the bidding of this mighty earl, thousands of men abandoned the white rose for the red, and Edward was obliged to make his escape to Holland, where, with the assistance of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, he soon collected a small army of Flemings and Dutchmen, with which he landed in Yorkshire, on the 14th of March, 1471. Charles the Bold had several reasons for aiding king Edward: in the first place, he had lately married his sister; he was also related to the queen's mother; and he was the inveterate foe of Louis of France, who was assisting the opposite party.

In the meanwhile, Henry the Sixth was released from his prison, and once more seated on the throne. In consequence of this, a great many persons of high rank, who were known to be in Edward's interest, fled for safety to different religious houses; and among the rest, the queen, Edward's wife, with her mother and her three daughters, shut herself up in the sanctuary of Westminster abbey, which was then a monastery, inhabited by Benedictine monks. The ground within a certain distance of the abbey was held sacred; and it would have been thought very wicked and impious to arrest or do harm to any one who had taken shelter there. In the building, called the Sanctuary, which resembled a strong prison, was born the prince who afterwards bore the title of Edward the Fifth.

The restored monarch did not long enjoy his recovered dignity; for Edward, having collected a large army, in addition to his foreign troops, marched towards London, and gave battle to Warwick, at Barnet, where that great baron was defeated and slain, on Easter Sunday, 1471.

It happened that Queen Margaret landed at Weymouth

on the very day of this fatal engagement; and at the moment when she had hoped to hear herself greeted as queen of England, and to find her husband in possession of the throne, she received the news that Warwick was killed, and that Henry was again a prisoner. Still this courageous woman did not entirely despair, but collecting her friends around her, ventured on another battle, which was fought at Tewkesbury, on the banks of the beautiful river Severn, where king Edward gained the victory, and Margaret and her son, who was a fine youth, about eighteen, were made prisoners. The prince was led into the presence of the king, who exhibited a conduct very different from that of the Black Prince, when king John of France was brought a captive before him. Nothing can show a more ungenerous disposition than to nsult a fallen enemy; but king Edward was worse than ungenerous, he was fierce and cruel too; for he struck the brave youth for making a spirited reply to his haughty question; and some of the persons who were present, with a view, probably, of pleasing the king, instantly dragged the ill-fated prince from the hall, and killed him with their daggers. Edward made not the slightest movement to prevent this cruel act; for he was very glad to be rid of so dangerous an enemy as the heir of Henry the Sixth; and he thus escaped the odium of putting him to death publicly, or the suspicion of having murdered him in prison.

The wretched and bereaved mother was then sent to the Tower, where her hushand had just died suddenly, and, as it was very generally supposed, unfairly; but of this there is no proof; and we ought to take into consideration that in those times, when the crime of murder was so common, every sudden death that happened, particularly among princes, was almost invariably attributed to violent means.

I mentioned that the duke of Clarence had joined himself with the earl of Warwick against his brother, and had even strengthened his alliance with the earl, by marrying his

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daughter; but I have not told you that, before the battle of Barnet, he deserted his father-in-law, and made peace with Edward, though his reasons for doing so are not exactly known.

It is believed that he was one of the assassins who murdered the young prince Edward, although the unfortunate youth was married to his wife's sister, the youngest daughter of the earl of Warwick. This young lady, who was called Anne of Warwick, afterwards became the queen of Richard the Third, although he is said to have been one of the murderers of her young husband. Probably, she was compelled to this marriage. It is worthy of remark, that the three chief persons charged with the assassination of Prince Edward came to an untimely end. Lord Hastings was beheaded; the duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard the Third, was killed at the battle of Bosworth; and the fate of the duke of Clarence is what I am now about to relate.

He had never been on friendly terms with the queen's relations; he hated them, and they hated him, and tried all their influence with the king to destroy him. A singular accident favoured their designs. A country gentleman, named Burdett, who belonged to the duke of Clarence's household, had a favourite stag in his park, which the king, in one of his hunting excursions, happened to kill. This so enraged the gentleman, that he made use of several expressions that were interpreted into treason; and for which he was tried and put to death. The duke was naturally very angry at the unjust execution of his friend; and spoke of it in terms which, being purposely misrepresented to the king, drew upon him also an accusation of treason, and he was sent as a prisoner to the Tower.

His enemies, and the queen, it is said, among the rest, tried to persuade Edward to give orders for his execution; but the king, who appears to have felt some reluctance to shed the blood of his own brother in public, caused him to

be put to death privately; and it was generally believed the unfortunate prince was, by his own choice, drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine; although it is more probable that the wine, of which he was immoderately fond, was placed in his room on purpose to tempt him to drink to suffocation, and there is reason to suppose he became insensible, and fell into the butt, as was, no doubt, expected. This happened in 1478, and the parliament afterwards passed against him an Act of Attainder, which was the same as if he had been convicted of treason; and the king was thereby enabled legally to seize upon his estates.

There was no other war in England during the remainder of the reign of Edward the Fourth; who lived thirteen years after the battle of Tewkesbury. This period is remarkable for the first act of parliament which prohibited the importation of foreign corn, and any manufactures which could be made in England; but it is still more memorable for the introduction of the newly-discovered art of printing into this country.

It is, and most probably will always continue, a question, whether printing was invented in Holland, or in Germany, as those who first discovered and practised the art, carried on their labours so secretly, that, after a lapse of a few years, it was very easy for more than one person to claim the merit of the invention; and it remains doubtful to this very day whether we owe this inestimable benefit to a citizen of Haerlem, named Costar, or to a gentleman of Mentz, named Guttenburg. Several works had already been printed in Germany, when William Caxton, a merchant of London, was sent by king Edward to transact some business in the Netherlands, and during his stay on the continent, he visited Cologne, where he contrived to acquire a knowledge of printing, and, on his return to England, set up a press at Westminster Abbey.

The first book printed in this country was a "Treatise on

the Game of Chess;" and a very wonderful performance it was thought at the time, although it would not bear any comparison with the printing of the present day. Caxton devoted the remainder of his life to the improvement of the art he had learned, and printed a great many religious works, besides some histories, and the poems of the poet Chaucer. Chaucer was the earliest of our English poets of any note, and lived in the time of Henry the Fourth.

You would find it rather difficult, at first, to understand the books which were written and printed in those days, for every author spelt words according to his own fashion, using such letters as produced the sound of the word according to his ear; so that the same word was spelt in different ways by different writers.

However, learning was now beginning to be more generally cultivated; and as people acquired a taste for knowledge, the rich gave their money to build colleges instead of monasteries. Winchester school had been founded as early as the reign of Richard the Second, by William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, who, from having been a poor lad, had raised himself, by his attention to learning, to great power and riches. As he knew by experience the benefit of a good education, he built this school for the education of seventy boys whose parents could not afford to pay for their instruction. Eton college was founded by Henry the Sixth, for the same purpose; and, from that time, the number of seminaries speedily increased all over the kingdom, and many new colleges were built, both at Oxford, and Cambridge.

After the introduction of printing, the progress of learning was very rapid, for the students could obtain books more readily than when there were none but those that were written; for, although many monks were constantly employed in transcribing manuscripts, they could not make as many copies in twenty years as could be printed in a few days. Manuscript books were likewise so expensive, that they could

only be purchased by very rich nobles, churchmen, and other wealthy persons.

As soon as Edward the Fourth was relieved from the troubles of civil warfare, he invaded France, then under the dominion of Louis the Eleventh. It was the invariable policy of that crafty monarch never to go to war, if he could possibly avoid it; therefore, he requested an interview with the English king, that he might propose terms of peace; and a curious meeting ensued between them, for Louis was so suspicious, that he would not trust himself within reach of an enemy; therefore, he had a strong wooden grating put up in the midway of a bridge, where the conference was to be held, he being on one side of the barrier, and Edward on the other, each attended by a train of noblemen. Having shaken hands through the grating, they proceeded to settle the conditions of their future friendship, which Louis was content to secure by the payment of a large sum annually, besides giving fifty thousand crowns for the ransom of his kinswoman, Margaret of Anjou, who was thereupon released from her dreary abode in the Tower, and returned to the halls of her aged father, king René of Anjou, where she passed the rest of her life in a very retired manner.

King Edward died about seven years afterwards, in 1483.

He was a popular, though not a good, monarch, and he gained the hearts of the people by his courteous manners, and the affability with which he mixed among them. The year before his death he gave an entertainment at Windsor castle to the lord mayor and aldermen of London, "And right well," says the old chronicle, "did he feast them;" so that they went away highly satisfied, and convinced that he was one of the best monarchs in the world.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS

OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

THE English have been famous for their hospitality in all ages, but never was this admirable quality carried to a greater extent than at the period of which we are now writing. The monasteries, convents, and the castles of the great, were open to all comers, who were lodged and feasted with the utmost liberality; and although the style of the entertainment was very rude, according to our present refined notions, there was plenty of good cheer, and every guest was welcome. Instead of two meals a day, it was now the fashion to take four, and all of them substantial ones; but then people rose at four o'clock in the morning, and took exercise out of doors till seven, which gave them an appetite for the substantial fare that usually graced the breakfast tables of those times, and which consisted of large joints of meat, salt fish, bread, ale, and wine. At ten o'clock, they dined in a great hall, the centre of which was occupied by a huge oaken table, covered with a great number of dishes, whose size and contents would astonish the moderate people of the present age; and at this well-filled board, the lord of the castle or mansion took his place on the dais, or raised part of the hall, with the ladies and his most distinguished guests. Visitors of less distinction sat above the salt, which used to be placed at the middle of another long table, standing on the floor of the hall; and below it, according to their rank, were seated the esquires and other retainers, amongst whom were the priests and choristers attached to the household. There

was always a great number of attendants, who handed round the ale or wine in goblets of silver, pewter, or wood; and there were also minstrels and jesters, to amuse the company, and enliven the feast.

The very inelegant mode of eating with the fingers was still continued, for as yet there were no forks, even at the table of the king. To complete the picture of a dinner in a castle hall, the hawks and hounds had their places assigned to them; the former standing on perches, the latter lying near their masters, on the ground. The next meal was supper, at four o'clock; and after that, a collation was taken in bed, called a livery, which consisted of meat, fowl, and other substantial dishes, with hot-spiced wine.

The rich citizens imitated this style of living as far as they could afford to do so, and, at their grand entertainments, they had jesters, jugglers, rope-dancers, and tumblers, to amuse their guests, according to the tastes of the times. The favourite pastime, called mumming, was practised very generally during the Christmas holidays, when the actors assumed all sorts of extravagant characters, such as those of giants, wild beasts, savages, and various grotesque figures, to the great delight of all beholders; and this kind of amusement was so much admired, that the lord mayor and aldermen once "rode a mumming," before king Henry the Fifth and his queen, who were very much pleased with the show.

Christmas was a season of great festivity among our ancestors. The king kept Christmas-day with much splendour; and, all over the kingdom, every mansion was a scene of feasting and merry-making. In the towns, the young men would amuse themselves by going about the streets in parties, dressed, like the court fools, with caps and bells, dancing, and performing a variety of mad antics; while others went in disguise from house to house, with their faces blackened, to play tricks among their neighbours, and partake of their Christmas cheer. The grand dish at the tables of the

great was a boar's head, which was always carried into the hall in procession, preceded by a band of music; and when the banquet was ended, the hall was cleared, and the evening spent in all kinds of merry games. Blindman's buff held the first place among the Christmas gambols of the olden time, and was not only played at by boys and girls, but by people of all ages and stations, from the proud noble, to the humble peasant; while the gray-headed sire mingled in the sport with as much pleasure as his grand children.

The chorister boys of the cathedral and college churches had a particular festival, which lasted from St. Nicholas' day, the sixth of December, to Innocents' day, the twenty-eighth of December, and was called the feast of the Boy Bishop, when they used to go about the streets singing and dancing, dressed like priests, and begging money from every one who passed. It is supposed that this custom was the origin of the Eton Montem.

The amusement of skating began to be practised in the fifteenth century, as well as that of rowing in pleasure boats on the Thames. The first lord mayor's show was in the year 1453, during the reign of Henry the Sixth; and, the next year, the mayor went to Westminster by water, having built a fine barge for the occasion, when all the city companies attended him in their barges.

It had long been customary, all over the country, to hold fairs and markets in the churchyards on Sundays; a practice that was very properly forbidden by the Archbishop of Canterbury, in the time of Henry the Fourth; but as the people were dissatisfied at being obliged to give it up entirely, he allowed them to hold a fair, every Sunday in harvest time.

The fashionable costume of this period, for gentlemen of rank, was a dress fitted as closely as possible to the shape, with a strong jacket, richly embroidered, reaching only about two inches below the waist, over which was worn a short mantle, of velvet or satin. The cap was of silk, velvet, or

cloth, adorned frequently with pearls and precious stones, and the snoes were still made with the ridiculous long points, fastened by a chain to the knee. A law was made in the reign of Edward the Fourth against this absurd custom, when shoemakers were prohibited from making shoes with peaks exceeding two inches in length. The middle and lower classes dressed very plainly, in close coats, fastened round the waist with leathern belts, and cloth caps like the Scotch bonnets.

There was nothing very remarkable in female attire, except the head dresses, which, on all fashionable heads, rose like towers, to the height of two feet, at least, and were wide in proportion. These frightful appendages were brought into this country by the queen of Richard the Second, a German princess, who also first introduced pins into England, in place of which, the ladies had been accustomed to fasten their dresses with little skewers, made of silver, gold, brass, or even wood; nor was it till the time of Queen Elizabeth, that pins were in general use.

During the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, many of the old Norman castles had been destroyed, and, with them, the last remains of the customs of chivalry, which had long been gradually declining. Tournaments, however, were still held on grand occasions, such as coronations and royal marriages; but the romantic spirit that animated the knights of old, had passed away, or, what was much the same thing, was beginning to be looked upon as somewhat ridiculous.

It is a strange fact that, notwithstanding the increase of knowledge, there still existed, even among the highest and most enlightened of the people, a belief in witchcraft, and in alchemy and astrology. The alchemist professed to discover a method of curing all diseases, of prolonging life, and of turning inferior metals into gold; whilst the astrologer asserted that, by his art, he could see into futurity, and fore-

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tell the events of a person's life. Such were the favourite studies of the learned at this period; and although they never arrived at the knowledge they were seeking, still, in the course of their experiments, the alchemists made many discoveries in chemistry that were perhaps more valuable to society than if they had found out either the philosopher's stone, or the elixir of life. Of medicine and surgery, but very little was yet known, the former being practised chiefly by the monks, and the latter by the barbers, who, in this country, as well as in France and Spain, were all of them surgeons in the middle ages, and, on that account, enjoyed a higher degree of consideration than we at present attach to them.

RICHARD THE THIRD.

THE LAST OF THE PLANTAGENETS.

1483 to 1485.

THREE hundred and thirty years had now elapsed since Henry the Second, son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, ascended the throne of England, and all the kings from that time had belonged to the same noble family; but their reign was now nearly ended, for Richard the Third was destined to be the last of the race.

Edward the Fourth had left two sons, one about thirteen, the other nine years of age, the elder of whom was, of course, heir to the crown. The uncle of those boys, Richard, duke of Gloucester, being a wicked, ambitious man, determined to deprive the helpless princes of their inheritance, and wear the crown himself; but he artfully endeavoured to conceal his

views, until he should find an opportunity of carrying them safely into effect. He, therefore, pretended that he had a great affection for his nephews, and hastened to conduct the young king, Edward the Fifth, to London; but the widowed queen, who knew his evil disposition, mistrusted his apparent kindness, and on hearing of his approach to the capital, fled from her palace, in the middle of the night, with her youngest son and five daughters, to take sanctuary once more in Westminster Abbey. Richard led the young Edward into London, with great parade; but he took the government into his own hands, assuming the title of Protector; and having obliged the queen to give up to him her youngest son, he sent both the boys to the Tower, that they might be kept, as he said, in safety, until the coronation; but this was not his real motive, as the event clearly proved, for the poor children were never seen again.

When he had thus disposed of the princes, Richard took measures for getting rid of all those who were likely to oppose his elevation to the throne; and among the victims of his tyranny, was Lord Hastings, a nobleman of high rank, who had been his intimate friend, and was, as I before noticed, one of those who assassinated prince Edward, the son of Henry the Sixth.

Having thus paved the way for his own advancement, Richard, by various artifices, caused himself to be proclaimed king, by the citizens of London, at a meeting in the Guildhall.

The character and person of this monarch are so differently described by different writers, that it is difficult to tell what kind of man he really was. Some assert that he was deformed, ill-featured, and disgraced by every bad quality a man can possess; while others say, that although one of his shoulders was a little higher than the other, he was by no means inelegant, that his face was handsome, and his manners prepossessing. Those who endow him with personal graces, are

also anxious to clear him from the dreadful crimes with which he has been generally charged, particularly that of the murder of the two young princes, his nephews, who, it is confidently believed, were smothered in the Tower, while asleep, by hired assassins.

Soon after the coronation of Richard the Third, it was publicly announced that the royal children were both dead, and as many circumstances occurred to throw suspicion on the usurper, few people at the time doubted his guilt. It is also affirmed that one of the murderers afterwards confessed the crime; but this circumstance is not admitted as any proof by those who attempt to vindicate the character of the king; for they say the man might have been induced by torture to make this confession, although, perhaps, perfectly innocent of the deed. It will naturally be asked, what motive any one could have in forcing an innocent man to declare himself a murderer? but we must remember that, some years after Richard's death, a young man, who is known in history by the name of Perkin Warbeck, raised a rebellion in England, by declaring that he was the younger of those two princes supposed to have been put to death, and that he was the right heir to the throne. Henry the Seventh, who was then reigning, might be anxious to obtain evidence of the murder of the two princes, in order to convince the people that Perkin was an impostor; but this does not prove either the truth or falsehood of the confession made by the alleged assassin. The fate of the sons of Edward the Fourth is one of those disputed points in history that, most likely, will never be cleared up so as to leave no room for doubt, yet the probability is, that they were put to death in the Tower, by order of Richard the Third, who never scrupled to remove by violence, any one who interfered with his views.

As soon as Richard was seated on the throne, he passed several laws for the benefit of the citizens; hoping by these means to reconcile them to his usurpation, and cause them

to forget his bad actions. These laws chiefly related to trade, and were made with a view of conciliating the guilds and corporations of towns in favour of his government; several of them being statutes to prevent foreigners from bringing to England such goods as the English could in any way manufacture themselves; for, as the foreign manufactures were then very superior to those of this country, the English, of course, were not able to sell their ill-made goods, if merchants were allowed to bring better articles from abroad.

For instance, there was a company of silk women, who bought thrown silk from the foreign traders, and made it into ribbons, chains, and various other articles, by which they earned much money; but during the last reign, instead of endeavouring to make such improvements in their machinery and manufactures as would have enabled them to compete with the Italian manufacturers, they complained to parliament that the Italian merchants brought silk goods to England, and deprived them of their employment; wherefore the parliament unwisely enacted, that no merchant should, in future, bring manufactured silk goods into this country.

This law enabled the silk women to charge very high prices for the articles they sold, as people were obliged to pay whatever they chose to demand, or go without ribbons, and other silken finery. Similar laws were also made with regard to other trades, by which they became so many monopolies, and, in consequence, no improvements were made in any of them; for the tradesmen and manufacturers, no longer fearing the competition of foreigners, took no trouble to improve their various arts, because they knew the people must buy of them, however inferior their goods might be; and yet while the king, by these acts, was doing so much injury to trade, he established English consuls at several ports in the Mediterranean sea, for its furtherance and protection. The consuls are gentlemen appointed by government to reside in any town in which the merchants of that govern-

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ment are in the habit of trading. They are entrusted with great authority in affairs relating to their own nations, and are bound to see that their countrymen are fairly treated.

One of the best laws made by Richard the Third was that for doing away with the custom of forced loans and benevolences. I have mentioned how people were obliged to lend money to the king, against their will; but I do not think I have told you, and perhaps you will scarcely believe it when I do, that the sovereigns of England would sometimes condescend to beg from the wealthy. Edward the Fourth, when about to invade France, actually went himself to many of his wealthiest subjects, to request that they would make him a present of such sums as they could afford, to pay the expenses of the expedition; and a story is told of an old lady, who was so pleased with his handsome countenance, that she gave him twenty pounds, a sum equal to about twenty times as much at the present day; and because he made a very polite acknowledgement of her liberality, she doubled the gift. You are surprised, no doubt, that a king should resort to such means for raising supplies; but his petitions, in fact, amounted to demands, as nobody dared to refuse either to lend, or give, when called upon.

The gifts were called benevolences, and, sometimes, men of respectability were so much distressed by these exactions, that they were forced to give up their houses, and live in a very humble manner; therefore, to suppress this arbitrary method of raising money, Richard made a law against it, which, although broken by himself, and several of his successors, was often referred to as a check upon their power; and in the reign of Charles the First, forced loans and benevolences were finally abolished.

It was Richard the Third who first established a post, in imitation of the couriers instituted by Louis the Eleventh, of France; but, in both countries, this mode of conveying letters was at first only used for government purposes, and

it was a long time before private individuals could have the comfort and consolation of hearing from their friends who were at a distance. Perhaps you have never considered how much the invention of the post has contributed towards the happiness of mankind; yet we are indebted for its first establishment to two very bad men, Louis the Eleventh, and Richard the Third.

Richard reigned only about two years; his end having been accelerated by his own cruelties; for his tyranny towards the nobles, several of whom were accused of treason, and beheaded without a trial, caused a conspiracy to be raised against him, headed by the duke of Buckingham, who had been one of his greatest friends.

The object of this plot was to depose the king, and restore the line of Lancaster, by placing upon the throne the heir of that family, Henry, earl of Richmond, a descendant, by his mother's side, from John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. His father was the son of Catherine, the queen of Henry the Fifth, and her second husband, Owen Tudor, but it was from his mother that he derived his claim to the crown. Henry was born in Pembrokeshire, at the castle of his uncle Jasper, the earl of Pembroke, and was only a few months old when his mother, the countess of Richmond, was left a widow at an early age, just at the commencement of the civil wars, and young Henry succeeded to the title of his deceased father.

The events of that unhappy period occasioned many domestic troubles in the families of the great, and as none were safe who could claim the slightest degree of relationship with either of the rival families, the little earl was sent, for protection, to his uncle, who placed him within the strong walls of Pembroke castle. The castle was soon afterwards stormed and taken by a party of Yorkists, under the command of a knight, named Herbert, who was rewarded for this exploit, by Edward the Fourth, with the title and estate

of the earl of Pembroke. Henry, then five years old, was brought up by lady Herbert with her own children, and he remained a captive, though kindly treated, in the castle to which he was the rightful heir, until the temporary restoration of Henry the Sixth, when Jasper of Pembroke recovered his earldom and his nephew. But the king was again dethroned, and the young earl of Richmond fled with his uncle to Bretagne, where he resided until the conspiracy against Richard the Third opened to him a prospect of ascending the throne.

His first step was to form an alliance with the king of France, Charles the Eighth, who considered Richard an usurper, and readily lent the earl some money and troops for his enterprise. On hearing of Richmond's intentions, Richard lost no time in making preparations to oppose him. It was of great importance at this crisis that he should have all the members of parliament on his side, he therefore wrote to all the gentlemen of Norfolk and Suffolk who were favourably disposed towards him, desiring that they would take care to be present at the elections of knights of the shire, that they might cause to be chosen such men as would support him; for the elections in those days were conducted very differently from what they are at this time, when such open interference in elections is not tolerated. Then no one was elected who was not approved of by the king and nobles; and although the people appeared to vote of their own free will, they had generally received a hint that they were expected to give their voices in favour of some particular individual; and such a hint from the lords of the manor, or the great barons of the county, was equal to a command, nor did the electors dare to act in opposition to it.

It was on the 7th of August, 1485, that Henry, earl of Richmond, landed at Milford-haven, with about five thousand men, and was joined by a great number of Welshmen, who regarded the grandson of Owen Tudor as a countryman.

In the mean time, Richard had formed his plan for opposing the invader, and had entrusted the defence of the sea-coast to such as he believed to be his friends, while he collected a large army in the centre of the kingdom; but many of those on whose fidelity he relied, deserted him at his utmost need; and he, like many others, learned from experience, that a bad man has no true friends.

The two armies met in a spacious plain near the town of Bosworth, in Leicestershire, and no sooner had the fight commenced, than many of Richard's party rode over to the side of his opponent. The desertion of his troops was a misfortune on which the king had not calculated, and in a fit of desperation he cried out "Treason!" and galloped into the midst of the enemy's ranks, to seek out Richmond, thinking, no doubt, that the only chance of preserving his own life, was to put an end to that of his rival. He had caught a glance of Henry's standard, and furiously cut his way through the lines, till he reached it, and having struck down two knights, he was aiming a blow at the object of his vengeance, when several horsemen closed round him, threw him from his horse, and despatched him with many wounds.

Such was the end of this tyrant, after a brief reign of two years and two months. Sir William Stanley picked up his crown, which he had worn in the battle, and placed it on the head of the earl of Richmond, while the battle-field resounded with cries of "Long live king Henry."

The body of Richard the Third was carried to Leicester, and buried in a stone coffin in the church of the Grey Friars; and it may, perhaps, be interesting to the curious, to know that, when the monasteries were suppressed, in the time of Henry the Eighth, this abbey was pulled down, and the coffin that had enclosed the remains of a monarch, was converted into a drinking trough for horses, for which purpose it was used at a small inn in the town of Leicester.

HENRY THE SEVENTH.

1485 to 1509.

THE event of the battle of Bosworth gave great joy to the whole nation, and the new monarch was wise enough to guard against future troubles, by marrying the eldest daughter of Edward the Fourth, who was heiress of the house of York; and thus the long standing quarrel was terminated, by the union of the white rose with the red. At the coronation of the queen, who was called Elizabeth of York, were present, the earl and countess of Oxford, who had suffered much in the cause of Margaret of Anjou. The earl had been imprisoned for fifteen years; and his countess, during the whole of that time, had supported herself and her children by needlework; therefore, to her, the victory of Bosworth must have been a joyful event.

Henry the Seventh was a wise prince, but severe, cautious, and avaricious; so that, in many respects, he resembled Ferdinand of Spain, who was reigning at the same period. Like Ferdinand, too, his great object was to heighten the prosperity of the country, by giving encouragement to trade, and by lessening the power of the nobility, which he did, by limiting the number of their retainers; for he did not choose that every earl should have a little army at his command within his own castle, which he could bring out at his pleasure, even against the king himself.

He also made a law, by which those great estates, that had given so much influence to the barons, might be subdivided and sold; so that rich commoners could become great landed proprietors, and this was the origin of that highly-

esteemed and respected class of Englishmen, called country gentlemen. Before this, the sale of lands granted for services had not been permitted without the king's special consent, and the payment of an arbitrary fine. You may remember I told you that, when a new heir came into possession, he also had to pay a large sum to the king, and as it sometimes happened that great estates were forfeited for treason, it was to the interest of the sovereign that they should not be divided and sold; but as Henry's object was to diminish the power of the nobles, he thought he could not adopt a better plan than to give them an opportunity of ruining themselves; for there were many young heirs, who, for the sake of raising money, did not mind parting with a great portion of the lands they possessed. This law nearly put an end to the remains of the feudal system, for there were few villains now attached to the lands; and the middle classes, instead of being the humble vassals of the great, sometimes became their equals in point of wealth, respectability, and influence.

There were several insurrections during the reign of Henry the Seventh, as might have been expected, since his title to the throne was not very clear, and there was a young prince still living a close prisoner in the Tower, who, in the opinion of many, ought to be wearing the crown. This youth was the earl of Warwick, nephew of Edward the Fourth, and the son of that duke of Clarence who died in so singular a manner in the Tower, while his brother was still reigning.

Though the king had no design upon the life of the unhappy young man, still he was afraid to let him appear in public, as he rather wished that his very existence should be forgotten by the people. Suddenly, however, a report was spread that Warwick had escaped, and, at the same time, a youth appeared in Ireland, under the protection of a priest of Oxford, who gave out that his protegé was the young earl himself, and the lawful king of England. The duke of Clarence, the father of the earl of Warwick, had been

governor of Ireland, and was much beloved by the Irish people, therefore, a strong party was soon gathered around the youth, whom they believed to be his son, and he was crowned at Dublin. As soon, however, as he ventured into England, his party was routed in a single battle, and himself made prisoner.

This young adventurer was a baker's son, named Simnel, who, having some resemblance to the royal family of York, was fixed on by the king's enemies to personate the earl of Warwick, and furnish a pretext for their rebellion. He was pardoned, and employed afterwards in the king's kitchen.

Soon after this, there appeared another pretender to the throne, of a more dangerous character than Simnel. This was Perkin Warbeck, a young man of great personal beauty, who also chose Ireland as the first scene of his adventures, where he arrived, from Flanders, early in the year 1493, and gave out that he was Richard, duke of York, the younger of the two princes said to have been murdered in the Tower by Richard the Third. He told how he had made his escape from prison, and gave so clear an account of his subsequent adventures, that many believed the story; and there are persons, even to this day, who think that it was true. The Irish armed in his cause, and the king of France, Charles the Eighth, invited him to his court, and treated him with all the honours due to the lawful sovereign of England.

Whether the French king gave actual credit to the tale or not, he probably thought that, by appearing to do so, he should gain some advantage over the king of England, for we too frequently find in history that the actions of princes spring from motives of self-interest. Perkin went in his assumed character from the French court to that of the well-known duchess dowager of Burgundy, sister of Edward the Fourth, who received him as her nephew, and, through her influence, the Flemings declared in his favour.

King Henry now became alarmed, for some of the English nobles and clergymen were suspected of favouring the designs of the pretender, and several were in consequence arrested and beheaded; while the king prohibited all trade with Flanders, so long as the Flemings continued to support the cause of Warbeck. This last measure, as he had foreseen, produced more effect than if he had put to death half the noblemen in the kingdom: for the merchants of both countries were almost ruined by the stoppage of their trade, and began to think it was of little consequence to them who was king of England, provided their business went on as usual: so Warbeck soon found himself deserted.

Although he was discouraged at this, he thought the people of England would join with him, if he came among them; and, in that hope, landed at Deal, with about two thousand men; but he found enemies, instead of friends, and with great difficulty, got back to Flanders, while one hundred and sixty-nine of his followers were made prisoners, and driven, tied together with ropes, to London, where they were all executed.

Perkin, after this, went to Ireland, and thence to Scotland, where at first he was kindly received by king James the Fourth, and married a beautiful and amiable young lady, Catherine Gordon, the daughter of the earl of Huntly, who shared all his future distresses; and very great they were, for the king of Scotland having entered into an alliance with Henry, was obliged to withdraw his protection from Warbeck, who left Scotland, accompanied by his beautiful young wife, who was too faithfully attached to him to leave him in his misfortunes. They went first to Ireland, but finding the Irish no longer disposed to support a cause that appeared to be hopeless, they left that country, and crossed over to Cornwall, where the people were just in a temper to revolt against the government, in consequence of some oppressive taxes that had lately been levied on them; therefore Perkin owed their

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assistance more to their own discontent, than to the merits of his cause. However, he very soon raised a considerable army of the disaffected Cornishmen, and having placed the lady Catherine in the priory of St. Michael's Mount, laid siege to the city of Exeter, which was so well defended by the citizens, together with the nobility and gentry who had flocked thither from all parts of Devonshire and the neighbouring counties, that he withdrew his forces, and had commenced a retreat, when he was met by the king's army, headed by Henry himself.

The bold Cornishmen were undismayed at the sight of their opponents; but not so Perkin Warbeck, who was rather deficient in that courage which is indispensable to a man who engages in such desperate enterprises; therefore, when the shades of evening were falling, and the royalists had pitched their tents, intending to commence the battle at day-break, he took advantage of the darkness of the night, and fled towards the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest, which he reached in safety. His flight was not discovered till the dawn of morning, when the insurgents, left without a leader, submitted to the king, who put to death a few of those who had been most active in the rebellion, and dismissed the rest. He neglected, however, to redress the grievances that had brought them almost to a state of starvation, and driven them to the course they had pursued.

The rebels being dispersed, the king sent a body of horsemen to St. Michael's Mount, to seize the Lady Catherine, who was brought a captive into his presence. Her youth, her extreme loveliness, and her tears, interested the monarch so much in her favour, that, instead of imprisoning her, he sent her to the queen, who received her kindly, and gave her an honourable station in the royal household.

Meanwhile, the sanctuary at Beaulieu was surrounded with troops, but, as the king would not venture to invade the rights of so sacred a place, he induced Warbeck, by a promise

of pardon, to come forth voluntarily; and when Henry returned to London, the fallen pretender rode in his suite, all persons crowding to look upon him.

The remainder of the life of this unfortunate young man is singular and interesting. To all appearance, he lived in liberty at the court, but, in reality, he was watched by keepers, who were ordered never to lose sight of him. He was never brought to trial, but was examined in secret; and as what passed at these examinations was never made public, many people are of opinion that he was no impostor, but the real duke of York; in which case, king Richard the Third would be acquitted of a part of the guilt which to this day is attached to his memory.

At last, Perkin contrived to make his escape from his keepers, or probably he was purposely allowed to do so, to furnish the king with an excuse for confining him more closely; for he was soon brought back, and ultimately sent to the Tower. Here he formed a friendship with the young earl of Warwick, who had been a prisoner from his childhood, and was, in consequence of his total separation from the world, and his want of instruction and occupation, almost an idiot.

It seems that these two captives planned an escape, which being discovered, they were both accused of treason, and condemned to death. Warwick was beheaded on Tower-hill; but his companion in misfortune, Perkin Warbeck, was executed in a more ignoble manner, being hanged at Tyburn. The Lady Catherine, who, after her husband's death, was called the "White Rose of England," continued at court; and some years afterwards, when time had softened her sorrows, she married a Welsh gentleman, named Sir Matthew Cradock, and was buried by his side at Swansea; where her tomb is still to be seen.

Having thus given you a long account of the affairs of the king, I will proceed to speak about those of the people.

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During the reign of Henry the Seventh, a treaty was entered into by the respective governments of England and Burgundy which is important in history, because it is a proof of the increase of commerce in Europe, and also shows that the rulers of kingdoms were beginning to think that trade was of more consequence than war. By this treaty, the two nations agreed to protect each other's ships from pirates; the merchants of each country were to have free liberty to trade to the ports of the other, and to fish on the coasts; the enemies of the one were not to be allowed to bring their goods into the markets of the other; and in short, any thing that was contrary to the interests of either, in a commercial point of view, was to be equally rejected by both.

The principal inland trade of England was still carried on at fairs, which were somewhat different from the fairs of the present time, the goods exposed for sale being chiefly adapted for use rather than amusement; and some of these fairs were of long duration, lasting fifteen or sixteen days. At this period, you must remember, there were scarcely any shops in the country towns, where people could buy, at any time such things as they wanted; and a journey to or from London, was a very great undertaking, in consequence of the badness of the roads, the scarcity of inns, and the want of conveyances, so that the only opportunity they had of making purchases for the whole year was at the fair; which was looked forward to with anxious delight.

To these fairs came the merchants from London and from foreign countries, bringing their goods for sale, which were laid out under regular lines of tents; the whole having the appearance of a busy town thronged with multitudes of people.

The fairs were a great source of revenue to the nobles, because each trader coming to them had to pay a duty to every baron through whose territories he passed, as well as at every place where he exposed his merchandise for sale;

therefore, it was considered a great privilege for any nobleman to gain permission for a fair to be held on his estate.

It is not unentertaining to remark the difference between the manners of the nobility of that and the present age. In the family of the earl of Northumberland, in the time of Henry the Seventh, the household was conducted with so much economy, that fresh meat was only eaten from Midsummer to Michaelmas; and only seventy ells of linen for table-cloths were allowed annually for the whole family, which consisted of above two hundred persons. A certain quantity of beer was brewed every month, so as to allow rather more than a bottle a day for each person; which was not much, considering the quantity of salt meat and salt fish they were in the habit of eating. Every body in the house rose at six in the morning, when mass was said, all the knights, squires, and servants, being present. After mass, succeeded the breakfast, when there was set on the earl's table, for himself and his lady, a quart of beer, a quart of wine, salt fish, red-herrings, and also sprats, when in season. This was the ordinary fare on fish days; but on flesh days, a chine of mutton, or a piece of boiled beef, was substituted for the fish. At ten o'clock, the whole family dined in the great hall; supper was served at four in the afternoon, and at nine, the gates were all closed; after which hour, no one was allowed to pass in or out.

This is a specimen of the domestic economy of an English nobleman of the olden time, and not of a parsimonious one either, since he reckoned upon dining as many as from thirty to sixty strangers every day, and allowed a sufficient quantity of provisions for them. The expense of each person for meat, drink, and firing, was calculated at two-pence half-penny a day; but then money was more valuable, and every article consumed was much cheaper; for instance, malt was only four shillings a quarter, which is now fifty-four shillings, and one quarter of malt would make two hogsheads of beer.

The diet of the working classes appears to have become more wholesome and plentiful, in consequence of the increased cultivation of vegetables of various sorts; their dress, too, was simple and convenient, consisting of a jacket and long coat, fastened round the waist by a leathern strap, like that now worn by the Bluecoat boys of Christ's Hospital, a cloth bonnet, shoes, and cloth hose; for stockings were not yet known.

Chivalry was now quite out of fashion, and the only remains of ancient warlike sports, were passages of arms, held in Greenwich park, during one month in the summer, as a pastime, by gentlemen armed like the knights of old, who tilted with each other so carefully, that they neither inflicted nor received any injury. Another favourite amusement was riding at the ring, which required a great deal of skill; for the object was, while riding at full speed, to carry away, on the point of a lance, a small ring that was suspended in the air. Archery was still practised, and fencing was becoming so general, that it was very usual, on holidays, for the London apprentices to practice with each other with blunted swords, before the doors of their masters.

The greatest event that took place during the reign of Henry the Seventh was, the discovery of America by the Genoese navigator, Christopher Columbus, who was assisted in his bold enterprise by the sovereigns of Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella. The success of Columbus excited a spirit of maritime discovery, and induced most of the governments of Europe to send out ships in search of unknown countries. The Spaniards and Portuguese were the most fortunate adventurers, as the former acquired all the richest countries of America, while the latter gained possession of a large portion of the East Indies, to which they had found a new passage by the Cape of Good Hope. This was a discovery of great importance to all Europe, because it opened the way for an extensive and profitable trade with India, which, till then, had

been entirely monopolized by the Venetians, who had been in the habit of sending their ships for Indian commodities to Alexandria, where alone they were to be obtained, and where no European trading vessels were allowed to go, but those of Venice. As soon, however, as the Portuguese had discovered the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, they brought every year ship-loads of Indian goods to Lisbon, from whence they were sent all over Europe; for it was not till the time of queen Elizabeth that the English merchants began to trade to the East.

Maps and sea-charts were first brought into England by Bartholomew Columbus, who came here to make proposals to the king, respecting the projected voyage of his brother, Christopher, his object being to obtain ships and money, in return for which, King Henry was to be sovereign of all the countries which Columbus might discover. Henry was willing to accede to these terms; but before Bartholomew could get back to Spain, his brother Christopher had sailed in the service of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the Spaniards became masters of the new world.

Henry reigned twenty-three years, and, although he was a severe prince, and unjustly extorted a great deal of money from the people, his administration was, in many respects, very beneficial to the nation. He died in the year 1509, and was buried by the side of his wife, in the beautiful chapel adjoining Westminster-abbey, which he had built for himself.

I may here mention that the princess Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry the Seventh, was married, during the life of her father, to the king of Scotland, James the Fourth; and it was in consequence of this marriage, that James the Sixth of Scotland, her great grandson, inherited the throne of England on the death of queen Elizabeth.

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HENRY THE EIGHTH.

1509 to 1547.

We are now coming to the time when a great revolution took place in the religion of this country, when the old customs founded upon the Roman Catholic faith were abolished; when the monasteries and convents were all shut up and destroyed, and the religious orders, which had formed so large a portion of the community from the time of the Saxons, disappeared from England, where no more monks or nuns were again seen, except during the few years in which queen Mary occupied the throne.

It is natural to suppose that such a change could not have been effected by any but violent means, nor without producing a material alteration in the general state of society; for the monks had for ages possessed great influence in public as well as private life, and exercised a control over the most trifling affairs in almost all families; but it was a control to which the people were so accustomed, that the dissolution of the monastic orders was by no means agreeable to the community at large, and could not have been effected by a sovereign less absolute than Henry the Eighth.

This celebrated monarch was only eighteen when he ascended the throne; and was at first a great favourite with his subjects, who did not expect he would prove an unfeeling and capricious tyrant. He was the second son of Henry the Seventh; but his elder brother was dead, and had left a young widow, Katherine of Arragon, who became the wife of the present King soon after his accession to the throne. This

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princess was a few years older than Henry; but she was handsome, accomplished, and possessed the most amiable disposition. She was a native of Spain, and a daughter of the illustrious sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella; and you will presently find that this very marriage was the first cause of the great revolution in the English church of which I have just spoken.

Not long after Henry came to the throne, he declared war against Louis the Twelfth, of France, and while he was preparing to invade that country, he offended the king of Scotland, by seizing two fine Scottish ships, under pretence that the captain, Sir Andrew Barton, was a pirate, though he had "Letters of marque," or authority from his government, to make war on the Portuguese; in exercising which, he certainly had illegally seized English trading vessels; but the true cause of the seizure of the Scottish ships was, that Henry wanted them for the French invasion, as he had but one good man of war, which was called the "Great Harry," and was built by his father, at the cost of fourteen thousand pounds. England was at this time but ill-provided with shipping, but Henry the Eighth had some large vessels built in the course of his reign, and very much improved the English navy.

However, as he was himself going to France, he sent the earl of Surrey to oppose the king of Scotland, James the Fourth, who was preparing for a war; and the two armies met at Flodden Field, when the Scottish king was slain in the battle known by that name, and celebrated by Sir Walter Scott, in his poem of "Marmion."

Meanwhile, Henry had won the battle of Spurs, in France, and made peace with Louis, who was to marry his sister Mary, a young lady only sixteen years of age, the French king himself being fifty-three. Poor Mary, who was very beautiful, did not like this arrangement; but she dared not refuse, although she had a lover on whom she would much

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rather have bestowed her hand. However, the old king lived only three months after his marriage, and his youthful widow became the bride of Sir Charles Brandon, afterwards duke of Suffolk, her former admirer.

One of the chief characters of this age, was cardinal Wolsey, who rose from a low rank in life to be prime minister of England, and was the richest and the greatest man in the kingdom, except only the king himself. It was Wolsey who governed England during nearly twenty years; for Henry left every thing to his management, and although he was haughty and ambitious, he possessed many good and noble qualities. This celebrated churchman built the fine palace at Hampton court, which he gave to the king; and lived in a style of magnificence that was scarcely equalled, even by his royal master. He was a great encourager of learning, founded several colleges, and wrote some excellent works of instruction.

It was at this period that Francis the First, of France, and the emperor of Germany, Charles the Fifth, were contending for superiority; and both being desirous of engaging king Henry in their interest, they courted the favour of cardinal Wolsey; but Henry was not a very faithful ally to either of them, for he was friendly with each in turn, at one time visiting Francis, and at another entertaining the emperor at his own court.

But these wars had so little connection with the affairs of England, that I should not mention them, except to remind you of what was going forward in Europe in the time of Henry the Eighth; and also that you may know, when you meet with any reference to the "Field of the Cloth of Gold," that it relates to a famous interview that took place between Henry the Eighth and Francis the First, near Calais, on the subject of the quarrels between Francis and the emperor. On this occasion, after immense sums of money had been spent in feasting, tournaments, balls, and other entertain-

ments, for each was accompanied by his queen and his whole court, the two sovereigns separated without coming to any understanding.

It was about this time that the Reformation was beginning in Germany; but Henry was at first so much opposed to the opinions of Luther, that he wrote a book in defence of the Catholic religion, which pleased the pope so much, that he gave him the title of "Defender of the Faith;" so that no one at that time could have supposed he would have been the person to abolish Catholicism in England; yet so he did; and his conduct does not appear to have been the result of a conviction of error, but of mere selfish caprice.

He had been married seventeen years, and had one daughter, afterwards queen Mary, when he happened to see Anne Boleyn, a young lady of rank, whom he thought he should like for a wife; therefore he applied to the pope to grant him a divorce from queen Katherine, on the pretence that it was not lawful to marry his brother's widow; but the pope would not give his consent, because Katherine was the aunt of the emperor, Charles the Fifth, whom he was unwilling to offend, as Charles was a zealous friend to the Catholic faith, and was trying to suppress the Reformation in Germany.

Cardinal Wolsey, too, opposed the divorce, and, by so doing, caused his own ruin; for he was soon disgraced, and banished from the court, and being shortly afterwards accused of treason, died of a broken heart. The king, who was selfish and unfeeling, showed no regret at the death of a man who had served him faithfully, and had been his friend and companion for so many years.

He thought only of accomplishing the object he had in view, and, for that purpose, called a parliament, in which he declared that he alone was head of the church in England, that for the future the pope should have no authority in his realm, and that the tax of Peter-pence, instituted in the time of the Saxons, should be abolished. The parliament agreed

to his divorce, on which he married Anne Boleyn; and, as he had resolved to separate entirely from the church of Rome, he did not notice the sentence of excommunication that was passed upon him.

The conduct of Anne Boleyn was not very amiable, for in her anxiety to wear the crown, she had been wholly regardless of the feelings of the injured queen, whose life, shortened by grief, terminated soon afterwards; but she was severely punished for her selfish ambition; for she had not been the wife of the capricious monarch more than three years, when he fell in love with another lady, and speedily removed all impediments to a third marriage, by procuring witnesses to accuse his wife of treason, and she was beheaded after a short imprisonment in the Tower. This unfortunate lady left an infant daughter, who became afterwards queen Elizabeth.

The unfeeling king went out hunting on the day of Anne Boleyn's execution, and the next morning he married Lady Jane Seymour, who died the following year, leaving an infant son, who reigned after his father's death, under the title of Edward the Sixth.

It was about this period that Henry turned his attention to the affairs of the church, in which he contemplated making great alterations; and as he was now neither a Catholic nor a Protestant, he made a creed of his own, to which he required every body to yield either a real or professed belief; and those who were conscientious enough to differ from him openly, were punished with the utmost severity.

At last, he determined there should no longer be any monasteries in England; but even he, violent and arbitrary as he was, felt that he must not proceed too hastily in a matter that affected the interest of every class of his subjects; for there were few who were not more or less connected with persons of the religious orders, and such ties were not to be broken without danger.

Henry the Eighth, however, was not a man to let difficul-

ties stand in the way of his will; therefore, all he thought it necessary to consider was, how to effect so important a revolution without causing an insurrection throughout the country. You ought to understand that the king was not solely actuated by a desire to promote the religion he had so lately adopted; he had more interested views in planning the extinction of monastic orders, for every abbey in the kingdom had extensive lands attached to it, and was rich in plate, jewels, and other valuables; all of which the tyrant intended to appropriate to himself.

The first step he took towards the accomplishment of this great design, was to call a parliament, and cause an act to be passed, for the suppression of the monasteries, convents, and priories, the revenues of which did not amount to £200 a year; and as soon as this decree was issued, officers were appointed to carry it into execution. There were at this period above a thousand religious establishments in England alone, and about seven hundred in Ireland, which were also to be abolished; but at present I shall only speak of those in England.

As soon as the royal mandate was issued, the king's commissioners were sent into every county, to take possession of all the lands and property belonging to the smaller monasteries. In virtue of this commission, no less than three hundred religious houses were broken into, plundered of every thing that was worth taking, and most of the unhappy inmates turned out into the world, without the means of procuring food, shelter, or raiment.

This cruel act was attended with consequences of a most distressing nature; for although the elder monks and nuns were permitted to go into the larger convents, the younger ones were left utterly destitute, and many of them were forced to beg their bread by the way side.

The country people beheld these proceedings with sorrow and indignation; and in the northern counties, the peasantry

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rose in arms to oppose the commissioners; but a military force was sent to crush the rebellion, and a great number of men were tried and executed for having been concerned in it. The king was not sorry that this disturbance had taken place, for it furnished him with an excuse for pursuing the course he had begun; therefore he pretended to believe that the monks had themselves incited the people to revolt; and on this ground, he issued a decree for the entire suppression of all the monastic orders throughout his dominions.

But before his command was given, he had endeavoured to conciliate the great body of the people, by telling them that if he took possession of the abbey lands and property, he should not want his subjects to pay so many taxes, and they were credulous enough to believe him. Having silenced the opposition of the middle classes, he gained the consent of the nobles, by granting to them a great part of the confiscated lands, at small or nominal rents; and finally he obtained the sanction of a part of the clergy, by creating six new bishoprics.

The principal obstacles being thus overcome, Henry proceeded to carry out his plan in earnest, and many sad scenes of desolation ensued. All the fine old abbeys were dismantled of their beautiful paintings and magnificent decorations, the altars were robbed of their valuable plate, the images of saints were stripped of the jewels with which they were generally very richly adorned; and, worst of all, the books and manuscripts, that had been the work of so many ages, were frequently torn up by the ignorant men who were employed in this work of destruction.

But the plunder of the religious houses was less melancholy to behold than the expulsion of the inhabitants, many of whom were sent out into the world to beg or starve, while the higher orders were obliged to resign their property to the crown, out of which they were only allowed small pensions for life.

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The abolition of the monasteries was a serious misfortune to the poor, who had been accustomed to look to them for relief in all their distresses; nor were the tenants of the abbey lands at all satisfied to exchange their old landlords, who had dwelt among them, and taken an interest in their welfare, for new masters, who would in most cases live at a distance, and care very little about them so long as they received their rents.

Such was the great revolution that took place in the religion and landed property in England, in the reign of Henry the Eighth. This change occasioned much discontent at the time, for the people could not regard with indifference the ruin of so many magnificent edifices, which they had hitherto viewed with pride and veneration, as the ornaments of their neighbourhood. The peasantry, especially, saw with grief and consternation the destruction of many a sacred shrine, which had been for ages the resort of pilgrims from distant lands, and of which they told many a wonderful tale.

But nothing affected them so much as to see the monks and nuns themselves, many of them bowed down with age and infirmities, wandering about, without a home, and depending on charity for their daily support. In a few years, the greater part of them were dead; and there have never since been many monks or nuns in this country, except during the short time of their restoration by queen Mary.

About two years after the death of Jane Seymour, Henry determined to marry again; and, by the advice of his new minister, Cromwell, the successor of cardinal Wolsey, he fixed upon the daughter of the duke of Cleves, a prince possessed of a considerable territory on the Lower Rhine, to whom he sent an ambassador, to make his proposals, and bring over the lady. His suit having been successful, the lady Anne, of Cleves, arrived at Dover, where the king met her; but not finding her so handsome as he had expected, from a portrait that had been shown to him, he took a strong

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dislike to her and they were separated very soon after their marriage. It is said that the lady was quite willing to resign the title of queen of England, for she did not much admire her tyrannical and violent husband, and was perhaps as happy to leave him, as he was to abandon her.

But this marriage was productive of a fatal result to his chief minister, Cromwell, who, having been the means of negotiating the alliance, lost the king's favour; and, not long afterwards, was beheaded on a charge of treason.

The fifth wife of Henry the Eighth, was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk; who met with a fate similar to that of Anne Boleyn. His sixth and last wife was Catherine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a lady of much good sense, who was fortunate enough to retain his favour during the remainder of his life.

Henry died in the year 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and the thirty eighth of his reign.

So much having been said of the evil acts of Henry the Eighth, it is but fair that we should speak of a very meritorious one, which was the emancipation of his bondsmen, on whom he bestowed the blessing of freedom, with this noble sentiment, that all men were free by nature, therefore it was cruel to deprive them of the liberty which God had given them. This good example was followed by other persons, and thus the last remains of slavery disappeared from the kingdom, without any law having ever been made against it.

The suppression of the monastic orders caused more attention to be paid to the study of medicine, as is proved by the institution of the College of Physicians in this reign.

Among the improvements made in the time of Henry the Eighth, none were more generally beneficial and useful than those introduced into the art of gardening, for which we are indebted to the Dutch and Flemings, who were the best gardeners in Europe, and from whom we obtained most of the flowers that adorn our gardens, and the chief vegetables

that supply our tables, with the exception of potatoes, which were brought from America in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and first planted in Ireland. Katherine of Arragon was accustomed to have her salads sent from Holland, until king Henry, engaged a Dutch gardener on purpose to raise vegetables for her use; and towards the end of his reign, celery, lettuces, cabbages, carrots, and turnips, were all grown in England, besides a variety of flowers that had not till then been cultivated in this country. Several kinds of fruit trees, that had been known here in former times, but had been destroyed during the civil wars, were brought again from the Netherlands; as were also hops, which were planted in Kent, and first used in brewing, to give the ale that bitter flavour which caused it to be called biére, or beer; and that is the reason why it is said that beer was not known in England till the time of Henry the Eighth, although it is well known that ale is a beverage of very ancient date.

Turkeys had never been seen in Europe until about this period, when they were brought from the newly-discovered country of America; and currants were first planted in England from Italy; so that, in consequence of all these importations, the domestic comforts of the English people in general must have been greatly increased

EDWARD THE SIXTH.

1547 to 1553.

In the last will of the late king, it was stated that his son Edward should succeed him; but in case of Edward's dying

without children, and before his sisters, the crown should devolve first to the princess Mary, daughter of Katherine of Arragon, and after her, to the princess Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn; and it so happened that all the three did reign in succession. Prince Edward was only nine years of age when he became king of England, and as he died before he was sixteen, he can hardly be looked upon as a sovereign, since the government was entirely conducted by other people. He was fond of study, and as his tutors were men who were friendly to the Reformation, he naturally imbibed their opinions on that subject, and during his short reign the Protestant religion was established by law in this country.

As Edward was a minor, his uncle, the duke of Somerset, governed under the title of Protector, and, in all but the name, was the actual sovereign of the country. This nobleman was very desirous of carrying into effect a project formed by the late king, of uniting England and Scotland by a marriage between prince Edward and Mary, the young queen of Scots, who had been sent to France for the purpose of avoiding this alliance, which was not agreeable to the people of Scotland generally. The duke of Somerset was so incensed at the refusal of the Scottish parliament, that he invaded Scotland with a large army, and won a great battle near the town of Leith; but he might as well have remained at home, and saved all the expenses of so useless a war, which cost more than a million of money, for after he had plundered Leith, as well as several castles, he returned to England without having gained the object for which he had undertaken the expedition. It was this same duke of Somerset who built Somerset House, in the Strand, for his palace; and to obtain stones for the erection of that magnificent building, he pulled down several churches; for stone was not so plentiful as it is now, and bricks were so dear, that the houses in the largest towns were almost all built of wood.

About this time, there began to be a great dissatisfaction all

over the country, chiefly owing to the declining state of agriculture. A great portion of the land, that formerly had been cultivated, was now converted into pastures, because the proprietors were able to make large profits, by selling their wool in foreign markets; they were, therefore, more anxious to feed sheep and cattle than to grow corn, and, in consequence, numbers of labourers were thrown out of employment. Commons, from which the poor used to derive a part of their subsistence, were enclosed for the purpose of rearing sheep and fattening cattle, and where a great number of labourers used to be required for ploughing, sowing, reaping, and getting in the harvest, there was now only employment for a few shepherds.

The many thousands farmers and labourers, who used to live in plenty on the abbey lands, looked back with regret to former days; and, at length, in consequence of the increasing distresses of the lower orders, an insurrection broke out all over the country.

This was a general rebellion of the lower orders against the higher. In almost every county, the peasants were up in arms; but the most serious disturbances were in Norfolk, where a man named Ket, a tanner, planted his standard on the top of a hill, near Norwich, and erected a throne for himself under an oak, which he called the "Tree of Reformation." At one time, his followers amounted to twenty thousand; but they were dispersed by the earl of Warwick, with a troop of German horse soldiers. About two thousand of the insurgents were killed, and Ket, their leader, was hanged.

This insurrection, and the expensive and useless wars that had been going on against France and Scotland, were now all attributed to the bad government of the duke of Somerset, who had a powerful enemy and rival in the earl of Warwick. Numerous charges were brought against him, and among the treasonable acts of which he was accused, was that of a design

to usurp the throne. But, however mistaken he might have been with regard to the best mode of ruling the kingdom, no one could really believe that he had any evil intention towards the young king, his nephew; yet he was tried by the House of Lords, condemned to death, and beheaded on Tower-hill. His splendid palace, which he had taken so much pains to build, became the property of the crown. The present building, known by the name of Somerset House, is a re-erection of the former edifice, and is now chiefly used for government offices.

The earl of Warwick, who had lately become duke of Northumberland, succeeded to the authority, though not to the title, of protector. His grand object was to secure the succession to the throne in his own family; for he saw that Edward's health was declining, and that, in all probability, he would not live long.

I must now recall to your remembrance the beautiful princess Mary, the sister of Henry the Eighth, who was first married to Louis the Twelfth, of France, when he was an old man, and afterwards to the duke of Suffolk. The daughter of this princess was now countess of Dorset, and her daughter the lady Jane Grey, was the person selected by the duke of Northumberland to succeed her cousin Edward, and to bring the crown into his family by marrying one of his sons.

In pursuance of this plan, he was constantly endeavouring to convince the king that it would be a misfortune for the Protestants, if his sister, the princess Mary, should ever come to the throne, as she was a most rigid Catholic. The dying youth, who was then in a deep consumption, and strongly attached to the Protestant faith, listened to these arguments with great attention; and being very fond of lady Jane Grey, who had been educated with him, he was persuaded to sign a deed, naming her as his successor, and, a few weeks afterwards, he died at Greenwich, July the 6th, 1553.

This amiable prince, about a year before his death, founded

Christ's Hospital, now the Blue-coat School, intended for the education of poor fatherless children; and also St. Thomas's Hospital, in Southwark, an excellent institution for the sick poor, who needed establishments of this nature, since they could no longer have recourse to the monasteries for relief.

QUEEN MARY.

1553 to 1558.

LADY JANE GREY, wholly unconscious of the transaction that had raised her to the throne, was living in happy retirement with her husband, lord Guilford Dudley, to whom she had just been married. It was with the greatest reluctance that she suffered herself to be taken to court, and crowned; for she had good sense enough to prefer the quiet and security of domestic life to the anxieties and dangers of sovereignty; but she was too young and timid to withstand the authority of those who had their own purposes to answer by her elevation; she was, therefore, made queen, though much against her will and her own sense of justice. The reign of lady Jane was brief; for in ten days she resigned, with joy, the crown that had been thus forced upon her, to the princess Mary, whose cause was supported by so large a body of the people, that the opposite party was obliged to give way.

Lady Jane was in hopes that her ready submission would have averted the ill consequences likely to arise from her short usurpation; but the innocent offender, and her beloved husband, both of whom were in the bloom of youth, were sent to the Tower; and in consequence of a fresh conspiracy, in

which lady Jane's father was so imprudent as to engage, they were both beheaded, after an imprisonment of three months. This interesting young couple suffered death with the utmost piety and resignation; consoling themselves with the hope of meeting in a better world, where they should never more be separated.

Mary was now nearly forty years of age, and soon after her accession to the throne, she married Philip the Second, of Spain. She is usually spoken of as a cruel, bigoted woman; but it ought to be considered that her bigotry, with regard to religion, was the effect of education, and the state of the times; while her harshness might have been caused by the miseries of her childhood, when her mind had often been pained, and her temper severely tried, by the shameful treatment experienced by her mother, the queen Katherine, as well as by the unhappy life she had afterwards led with her father and his numerous wives; nor was her alliance with the stern and cruel king, Philip of Spain, likely to soften her disposition.

Before Mary was proclaimed queen, she had promised that all persons should be allowed to enjoy their own religious opinions; but it soon became evident that the great object of her life would be the re-establishment of the Roman Catholic church.

She re-founded such of the monasteries as were still vested in the crown, and gave back all that had remained in the late king's possession of the rich vestments, plate, and jewellery, which had been taken from the church in the time of her father. She then instituted prosecutions against all who would not return to the old form of worship, and hundreds of men and women were condemned to suffer the dreadful sentence then so common, of being tied to a stake and burned to death. Among the victims who perished thus in the time of queen Mary, was archbishop Cranmer, who had been one of her father's greatest friends, and who had divorced her mother.

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when the pope would not do it. Ridley, the bishop of London, Latimer, the bishop of Worcester, and Hooper, the bishop of Gloucester, were also burnt for opposing the restoration of the Roman Catholic Religion.

Philip of Spain did not long remain in England, for shortly after his marriage he was summoned to the Netherlands by his father, Charles the Fifth, who was about to resign his dominions to him; and not being particularly attached to his wife, he did not return for two years; when he paid a short visit to London, in the hope of persuading Mary to declare war against France, which she did, but the parliament refused to grant supplies.

However, she contrived to assist him with troops and money, and it was in this unnecessary war that the English lost the town of Calais, which they had possessed from the time of Edward the Third, and which was valuable to them as a store-house for the wool, tin, and other commodities, that were exported to be sold in foreign markets; besides being a safe landing-place, whenever the English were desirous of entering France, whether as friends or enemies.

The queen was so much grieved at the loss of this important place, that it is supposed to have hastened her death, which happened soon afterwards, in the sixth year of her reign.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

1558 to 1603.

THE long and illustrious reign of queen Elizabeth, is generally referred to as a sort of golden age, or period of great

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prosperity; yet this celebrated sovereign so far from being a pattern of mildness or goodness, was violent, harsh, unfeeling, and tyrannical, inheriting much of her father's disposition.

But though possessed of little gentleness, she was endowed with a masculine mind, and was remarkable for her wisdom; she therefore chose clever ministers, and knew how to promote the wealth and prosperity of the nation. As she was a Protestant, she had a difficult part to perform during the life of her sister; and although she never ventured openly to profess her sentiments on religion, Mary was always jealous of her, and never treated her with confidence or affection.

She was kept in confinement, and closely watched; and at one time was even accused of being concerned in a plot against the life of her sister, and sent a prisoner to the Tower, where she remained some time in a most alarming state of suspense, sadly meditating on the fate of lady Jane Grey, and other unhappy individuals who had been inmates of that dismal abode. She was liberated, however, without any trial, and sent to Woodstock, where she lived under the eye of a very severe and vigilant guardian, for a long time; and indeed she never felt free from danger, as long as her sister was alive.

The few years of restraint to which she had been subjected might have tended to exasperate a temper naturally overbearing; for she soon began to exercise a most despotic control over others; and this disposition was fully exemplified in the reply she made to one of her ministers, who, shortly after her accession, was urging her to make choice of a husband. "No, no," said she, "I will have no master here, and only one mistress, I promise you."

The proclamation of Elizabeth, as queen of England, was hailed with great joy by the people, who were tired of the late gloomy reign. No one disputed her title, and all London resounded with shouts of "God save queen Elizabeth!" The

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church bells were set ringing, tables were spread in the street, where there was plenty of feasting and merry making; and at night, bonfires were seen blazing in every direction. The new queen herself was at Hatfield House, in Hertfordshire, when the news was brought to her of the death of Mary, and the joyful manner in which her accession had been greeted by the whole country; on which she fell on her knees, exclaiming in Latin, "It is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes!" and these words were afterwards stamped on her gold coin.

On the 23rd of November, 1558, queen Elizabeth left Hatfield, with a numerous and joyous retinue, to take possession of the throne, and at Highgate was met by the bishops, who kneeling before her, tendered their allegiance. At the foot of Highgate-hill, the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, were waiting to conduct her to the Charterhouse, where lord North, who had always been her friend, then resided.

The coronation was conducted with great magnificence. All the ladies of the train, according to the fashion of the times, rode on horseback, for coaches were not then in use. The queen, however, rode in a chariot, and delighted the people all the way she went by the notice she took of them, stopping, at intervals, to receive the nosegays that were presented to her by the women in the crowd. All the streets through which she passed, from the Tower to Westminster, were adorned with pageants and shows; and as the shouts of the populace greeted her on every side, she answered with gracious smiles, saying at intervals, "I thank you, my good people; be well assured I shall stand your good queen."

Queen Elizabeth, like her sister Mary, had promised, at her accession, that she would allow all her subjects to enjoy their religious opinions undisturbed; but no sooner was she seated on the throne, than she adopted measures to put down

the Catholic, and re-establish the Protestant religion, making many severe laws against the Catholics, who were very harshly treated during the whole of her reign; for in those days, each sect was uncharitable towards others, and whichever happened to be in power, used that power to oppose those who, in religious matters, thought differently from themselves. The Catholics, therefore, were now fined, imprisoned, or put to death, if they would not attend the Protestant churches; and those who left the country for conscience' sake, forfeited all their estates.

A new sect appeared in this reign, that of the Puritans, and as they made a great figure in after times, and became the founders of the United States in North America, you must keep them in remembrance. They were very strict Reformers, and followed the opinions of a preacher named Calvin, who was the great promoter of the Reformation in Switzerland, and who did not approve of particular forms in the practice of religious duties; as for example—the Puritans thought it wrong to have music in churches, to marry with a ring, to keep any such festivals as Christmas-day or Easter, or for clergymen to preach in gowns; they also disapproved of such amusements as the people were in the habit of indulging in. Besides, they maintained, as they do now, that the church ought to be quite separate from the state, and should not be governed either by king or bishops.

Now queen Elizabeth was favourable to all these outward symbols, ceremonies, and religious festivals; and was ambitious of being at the head of the church, and of ruling over all affairs; she therefore hated the Puritans, and treated them as harshly as she did the Catholics.

When Elizabeth ascended the throne of England, Mary, queen of Scots, was living happily in France, where she had been educated, and had been married to the dauphin, who was now king Francis the Second; therefore Mary was queen of France as well as of Scotland, and there were many persons

who thought she had a better title to the English crown than its possessor, and who persuaded her to assume the arms of England; an offence that was never forgiven by the proud and jealous Elizabeth. Mary was the great grand-daughter of Henry the Seventh, and those who desired to see her reigning over this country, and who were principally the Catholics, maintained that Elizabeth ought to have been excluded from the throne, because her mother, Anne Boleyn, had suffered death for treason; although it is well known that this charge of treason was fabricated merely to release the king from his marriage.

The two queens, therefore, disliked each other; and when Mary, in consequence of her husband's premature death, was obliged to return to Scotland, Elizabeth refused to let her pass through England; therefore she went by sea from France to her own country, where we must take leave of her for a while, as the next few years of her unhappy life belong to the history of Scotland.

In the meantime, the English queen was taking every means to increase the opulence and extend the commerce of the country, which reached a high degree of prosperity under her government. The middle classes of people lived in a style of ease and domestic comfort that was unknown in the previous century, even among the generality of the nobility; and the citizens more especially became celebrated for their sumptuous living.

A great many voyages were made to America and India by different navigators, particularly by Sir Francis Drake, who sailed round the world; and Martin Frobisher, who made discoveries in the North American seas. The progress of navigation was, undoubtedly, a great benefit to the nation; but there are very few benefits that have not some evil attending them, and it is a strange as well as lamentable truth, that just when slavery had been abolished in England, not by law, but from feelings of humanity, a company should be formed,

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under the authority of a Protestant government, to buy and sell slaves in foreign countries.

A sea captain, named Hawkins, finding that negroes could be sold for a great price in the West Indies, persuaded a company of merchants in London, to subscribe money for the purpose of fitting out ships to sail to the coast of Guinea, where he proposed to seize on the natives, and carry them to Hispaniola, to sell to the Spaniards as slaves. The design was put in execution, and found so profitable, that the slave trade was carried on to a great extent, and the ships returned to England, laden with sugar, ginger, and other West Indian produce.

It was customary, at this period, for the merchants in London, both English and foreign, to meet every morning in Lombard-street, with their brokers and interpreters, to buy and sell all kinds of merchandise; and this was the place of exchange, till Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy merchant, thinking it would be much more convenient to have a meeting place where they would not be exposed to the weather in open streets, erected, at his own expense, a building for that purpose, which the queen went to see when it was finished, and desired that it should be called the "Royal Exchange." This building was destroyed by the great fire of London in the year 1666, and having been rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, was again unfortunately burnt down in 1838.

A more magnificent Exchange is now erected on the site of the former building, the first stone of which was laid, in the presence of the civic authorities, in February, 1842, by his royal highness the Prince Consort.

MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

We will now return to Mary, queen of Scots, who, after having met with many misfortunes in her own country, was compelled to resign her crown, and seek a refuge in England, where she hoped that her distresses would ensure her the protection of her royal cousin. But Elizabeth was not inclined to treat her with kindness, and instead of receiving her at court, sent her to Bolton castle, in Yorkshire, where she was treated exactly like a state prisoner, and afterwards removed to other castles, in the custody of different noblemen, on the plea that she had conspired with others to take the life of her husband, Lord Darnley, who had been murdered in Scotland.

This charge was never clearly proved; but even if it had been, the queen of England had no more right to punish the queen of Scots for crimes committed in her own country, than the latter had to interfere with her; since each was an independent sovereign, and not accountable to the other for her misdeeds.

For eighteen melancholy years, the Scottish queen was kept a prisoner in England; during which time several persons of rank were put to death on suspicion of attempting to liberate her; for Elizabeth knew, very well, that all the Catholics in the kingdom would much rather have Mary to r ign over them than herself, and it was very difficult, at this period, to distinguish who were Catholics, and who were not; for a vast number of persons concealed their true sentiments, for the sake of preserving their lands and liberty.

At length, the dreadful massacre of the Protestants, in Paris, on St. Bartholomew's eve, made Elizabeth more anxi-

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ous than ever to destroy her unhappy rival; especially as the duke of Guise, who was at the head of the Catholic party in France, was Mary's uncle, and his power was so much strengthened by the cruel transactions which had just taken place in that country, that the queen began to think that Mary might yet be released, and become a dangerous rival. She therefore kept her in closer confinement than before; and, after some years, found a pretext for putting her to death. A number of young gentlemen, of high birth and fortune, in the true spirit of chivalry, resolved to make an effort for the liberation of the Scottish queen. Their plans were arranged, and every thing was ready for the execution of the plot, when they were betrayed by some spies in the pay of the government, who had pretended to take a part in the conspiracy; and these imprudent young men were all cruelly executed.

The once beautiful Mary, now pale, sickly, and crippled, was carried from one place of confinement to another, and treated more and more harshly, till her persecutors at length shut her up within the dismal walls of Fotheringay castle, in Northamptonshire. Here she was most unfairly tried for being concerned in the late plot; and had she been guilty of such a charge, it was no great crime to endeavour to escape from a prison in which she ought never to have been placed. She was surely as much justified in endeavouring to free herself from captivity, as the traveller who falls into the hands of banditti.

Her fate, however, was now decided; she was condemned to death, and a warrant was signed by the cruel and unrelenting Elizabeth, for her immediate execution. While the trial was proceeding, she was refused the assistance of either lawyer or counsellor; and all her letters and papers, which might have proved her innocence, were taken away, while several forged letters were substituted, and used as evidence against her. After the sentence of death had been pronounced,

she earnestly entreated permission to see a clergyman of her own religion, but this last consolation was also denied her.

The particulars of the execution of this unfortunate lady have so much melancholy interest, that I cannot pass them over in silence. On the morning of the fatal day, which was to terminate her long sufferings, she arose earlier than usual and bestowed more than ordinary care on her attire, she then gave little presents to all her servants, and went to pray in her oratory, where she remained till summoned by the sheriff to meet her fatal doom.

This was at eight o'clock in the morning, and with a serene countenance, leaning on the arms of two of her guards, she walked towards the place of her execution, which was the great hall of Fotheringay castle. From long confinement, she had almost lost the use of her limbs, and moved with much difficulty. Meeting her steward, Sir Andrew Melville, on the way, he fell on his knees before her, the tears streaming down his face. "Ah, madam," cried he, "was ever man the bearer of such woeful news as I must carry to Scotland!" "Rather rejoice, my faithful servant," replied the queen, "that my troubles are about to end."

On reaching the hall where the scaffold was prepared, she looked calmly on the dismal scene, and took her seat; when the warrant for her execution being read, she again employed herself in prayer. The dean of Peterborough unfeelingly interrupted her pious exercises by a long discourse on the errors of her faith; but she told him that as she was born in the ancient religion, so she would die in it; and when he roughly attempted to renew his exhortations, two noblemen, who were present, desired him no longer to disturb her last moments.

At length, two of her female attendants proceeded to remove her veil, and other parts of her dress that might impede the fatal blow; but the executioners interfered to perform that office, on which she smiled, and said she was not

used to being assisted by such valets. All being now ready her servants uttered loud cries and lamentations; but she made a sign to them to be silent, begged they would pray for her when she was departed, laid her head quietly on the block, and in another instant was at rest for ever. Thus died the once beautiful and much-admired Mary, queen of Scots; and when the dean of Peterborough cried with a loud voice, "So perish all the enemies of Queen Elizabeth!" one voice alone said "Amen!"

That this unhappy, and much-injured lady, had faults, no one can deny; perhaps she was not wholly guiltless of crime; but the treatment she experienced can never be justified on any ground, and must always remain a blot on the memory of the English queen. The execution of Mary, queen of Scots, took place on the 7th of February, 1587.

FROM THE

DEATH OF THE QUEEN OF SCOTS.

TO THE

DEATH OF ELIZABETH.

THE year that followed the death of Mary, queen of Scots, was memorable for the defeat of the great Spanish Armada, that was sent out by Philip of Spain, to invade England. Philip had several causes of complaint against Queen Elizabeth. In the first place, she had refused to marry him; for although he had been the husband of her sister, he was among the many princes who were desirous of sharing her

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throne. Then she had always taken the part of the Huguenots in France, and the Netherlands, where they long fought against his authority, and were so cruelly treated by him, and by his minister, the duke of Alva, that numbers of them fled to England, where they found protection.

Another cause for his enmity was, that Sir Francis Drake, and other English navigators, under the queen's letters of marque, (which means, with her written permission) had seized and plundered several of his American settlements, which certainly was most unjust, and would now be considered piracy; he, therefore, fitted out his immense Armada, the largest fleet that had then been ever known, both for the number and size of the vessels.

The consternation of the English, at the approach of this tremendous armament, was extreme. Every class of people voluntarily came forward with loans and free gifts of money, to raise a force for the defence of the country; and many merchants of London equipped and manned vessels for the queen's service at their own expense. A large fleet was thus soon got ready to oppose the dreaded Armada by sea, and a large army to obstruct its landing. All private quarrels were forgotten in the general danger, and Catholics as well as Protestants lent their utmost aid to repel the invader. Some persons advised the queen not to trust to the Catholics, but in this instance she showed a generosity of mind by not giving ear to such insinuations.

The part of the army destined to defend the capital, in case the enemy should effect a landing, was stationed at Tilbury fort, opposite Gravesend; another division was distributed along the south coast; while the queen remained with the main body of the troops, who were held in readiness to oppose the enemy, at whatever point they might attempt to land.

Elizabeth was now growing old, but she had lost none of that bold and masculine spirit which had always distin-

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guished her. She went to review the troops at Tilbury fort, and addressed them in as encouraging a speech as was ever made by a general to his army. I have not room to give you the whole of this celebrated harangue, but, as I do not doubt you would like to hear in what manner this renowned personage addressed her soldiers, I will give you a portion of it, as a specimen.

"My loving people, we have been persuaded to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I do assure you, I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful people. Let tyrants fear; for me, I have always so behaved myself that, under God, I have placed my chief strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and good will of my subjects, and therefore I am come amongst you at this time, not for my recreation and disport, but being resolved, in the midst of the heat of the battle, to live and die amongst you. I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman; but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too, and think foul scorn that Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms; to which, rather than any dishonour shall grow by me, I myself will be your general, your judge, and the rewarder of your virtues in the field. In the mean time, my lieutenant-general shall be in my stead; and by your obedience to him, your concord in the camp, and your valour in the field, I doubt not, we shall soon have a famous victory over our enemies."

At length, on the 19th of July, 1588, the formidable Armada came in sight of Plymouth; on which the English admiral, Lord Howard, of Effingham, prepared for battle; but soon finding he could make but little impression on the united fleet of huge Spanish galleons, he was advised by Sir Francis Drake to endeavour to destroy, or disperse them, by the following expedient. He ordered eight of his lightest ships to be well tarred, and stowed full of combustibles, and

in the middle of the night, which happened to be very dark, they were set on fire, and sent adrift before the wind, amongst the ships of the enemy. The Spaniards, who were at anchor off Calais, seeing these blazing vessels coming full towards them, cut their cables, and put to sea, in the utmost terror; some sailing one way, and some another; which gave great advantage to the English admiral; for when the fleet was thus dispersed, the vessels were pursued and attacked, a few together, by small fleets of English ships, which had no sooner disabled or destroyed one body, than they set off in chase of another; and thus a great victory was gained, by the skill of the commanders, who could not have succeeded in conquering the fleet of such immense ships had it remained together, for, in almost all cases, it is union that gives strength.

The queen, meanwhile, put herself at the head of the troops, encouraging them by cheering speeches, and giving orders how they should act in case the Spaniards should land; but there was no likelihood of such an event, the invaders being now only anxious to return to Spain. Their loss, both of ships and men, was immense; for besides the defeats they had sustained, many of their vessels had been scattered and destroyed by storms; so that a very small portion of the Great Armada returned to the country from which it had so proudly sailed.

A day of thanksgiving for deliverance from this great danger, was appointed, when the queen went in state to St. Paul's, in a triumphant car, decorated with the ensigns that had been taken from the Spaniards. It has frequently been stated, that a paper, similar to a newspaper of the present day, was published on this occasion, giving an account of the defeat of the Armada; but it was most likely only a handbill, as newspapers were not published till some years after this time; and for want of them, every great public event used to be mentioned by the clergymen in their sermons. The people were heartily rejoiced when the danger was past; but if

Elizabeth had not been wise enough, in the early part of her reign, to build ships, and strengthen her navy, it is possible that England might, at that time, have fallen into the power of the Spaniards.

Yet queen Elizabeth had many weak points in her character, and was, at times, excessively attached to favourites, two of whom, the earl of Leicester, and the earl of Essex, are well-known in history. The former was a man of a bad disposition, yet the queen was so much attached to him, that most people thought she would marry him, and so did he too; but he had a beautiful young wife, whom he had married privately, and kept concealed at one of his old country mansions, where, it is said, she was murdered by his orders, that she might not stand in the way of his preferment at court. Elizabeth was told of the cruel deed, but she either did not, or would not, believe it, and Leicester maintained his influence at court till his death.

He was lord of Kenilworth castle, where he used to give grand entertainments to the queen, who was very fond of all kinds of shows, masquerades, balls, and banquets; which made it so expensive to entertain her, that the courtiers were often sorry when she intimated her intention of honouring them with her presence.

On one occasion, when the earl of Bedford expected a royal visit, he wrote to Lord Burleigh, one of the ministers, begging him to manage matters, so that the queen should not stay more than two days. On another occasion, a gentleman, one Master Hicks, being lately married, was told that the queen intended to honour him with a visit of congratulation. The poor gentleman was in such a fright, that he went to a friend at court, to ask him if there were no means of escaping the intended favour. The friend advised him to go out of town, and to desire his bride to present her royal guest with a handsome ruff, or some other piece of finery, which would be sure to please.

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Wherever the queen went, she always expected some present; and a story is told of a mayor of Coventry, who, on the occasion of her coming to that city, presented her with a purse of gold, which she received most graciously, saying, "I have few such gifts as this; it is a hundred pounds in gold." "Please your grace," replied the mayor, "it is a great deal more." "How so?" said the queen. "Madam," returned the mayor, "it is the hearts of all your loving subjects in Coventry." On which, she smiled and said, "We thank you, Mr. Mayor: it is a great deal more, indeed."

The successor of Leicester, in the queen's favour, was the earl of Essex, a young nobleman of great talent and spirit, but of too rash a temper to preserve the regard of his capricious mistress. He was sent to France with a party of volunteers, to assist Henry the Fourth in his war against the Catholics, who opposed his accession to the throne; and, as the queen of England was anxious that he should succeed, she frequently supplied him with troops and money, which were of much service to him, and contributed greatly to his ultimate success.

Some time after Essex had returned from France, he was sent to Ireland, to put a stop to a rebellion there; but not being able to do so, his conduct was misrepresented to the queen, who wrote an angry letter to him; on which he returned, without leave, to justify himself. The queen listened to his apologies, and seemed inclined to forgive him; but he had enemies among her chief counsellors. and for several months was detained at court as a state prisoner.

In vain did this unhappy young nobleman, who had committed no crime, petition for leave to retire from the court, to pass his life in retirement, with his wife and his books, for he was married, and of a studious disposition, so that he might have been very happy in obscurity, had his request been granted; but it was refused, and he was moreover strictly watched and guarded, even in his own house. This treat-

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ment provoked him at length to try to raise a rebellion in London, but the people were afraid to join him, although he was much beloved; for the queen, like her father, never scrupled to hang up rebels or rioters by hundreds. The unfortunate earl was, therefore, taken to the Tower, tried for treason, and beheaded. His fate was universally lamented, and, it is said, the queen herself repented of her tyranny in this instance.

In speaking of the great characters of the age, I must not forget to mention Sir Walter Raleigh; who distinguished himself as a courtier, a writer, and a warrior. He also sailed on voyages of discovery to America, and took possession for England of part of the land now called the United States, to which the queen gave the name of Virginia.

One of the vessels sent out by Raleigh, left a number of men on an island in North America, for the purpose of colonizing it; but they were reduced to great distress for want of clothes and provisions, and must all have perished, had not Sir Francis Drake happened to touch at this island on his way home from a voyage, and brought back all who remained alive. These men first brought tobacco into England; which was so much liked, that smoking soon became the fashionable accomplishment of all young men of rank.

You will presently hear more of Sir Walter Raleigh, who enjoyed a high degree of prosperity in the time of queen Elizabeth; for she was a great admirer of his fine person and brilliant talents; but he experienced a reverse of fortune under the reign of her successor, and was at last beheaded.

The great English poet, Shakspere, and many other men of genius and learning, lived in the time of Elizabeth; for the darkness of the middle ages was passing away, and the light of science and literature was spreading itself gradually over Europe.

This reign is remarkable, among other things, for the institution of poor laws, which, by finding employment for

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the destitute, prevented a great deal of crime and misery. Since the breaking up of the religious establishments, the country had been overrun with thieves and beggars; for those who could not obtain work, and had nowhere to fly to for relief, were compelled either to beg, rob, or starve.

The increasing distresses of the lower orders were, at length, taken into consideration by the government, and provision was made for the bettering of their condition, by the establishment of workhouses, where those who were able, might be employed, and where the aged and infirm might be protected from starvation. Overseers were appointed to see that the wants of the poor people were properly attended to, and a sort of tax was levied on those who had plentiful tables and good homes, to provide food and shelter for the hungry and destitute. This tax, called the poor rate, is now paid by every householder; and thus the destitute poor are supplied with the necessaries of life.

Queen Elizabeth died in the year 1603; having reigned forty-five years. She was the last sovereign of the house of Tudor.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS,

AND CONDITION, OF THE PEOPLE, IN THE TIME OF

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

We often hear of "the glorious days of good Queen Bess," but I am not sure that we should like to live in such days, glorious as they might have been in comparison with those

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that had preceded them. When we reflect that people were liable to be dragged from their beds and taken to prison, merely for not attending a particular church, against their conscience; that they were still liable to be pressed, that is seized by force, and made soldiers and sailors against their own will, unless they could buy themselves off by paying a fine; that they could be compelled to lend money to the sovereign against their will, notwithstanding the statutes made in the reign of Richard the Third, and Henry the Eighth, against "forced benevolences;" and that property was almost entirely at the disposal of an arbitrary and capricious woman, or her ministers and favourites, I think you will agree with me in thinking that we are under a much better government now than the people were then. Nevertheless, there was a great deal of comfort and merriment in those days, and the English were never more famed for hospitality and good cheer.

The style of living had very much improved, and many delicacies were seen at the tables of the great, which, in former times, were covered with huge dishes of meat and fish, without sauces or vegetables. Lamb was now occasionally eaten as a luxury, asparagus and cauliflowers were introduced about this time, and it was not unusual for people of rank to indulge themselves with a dessert of fruits and jellies. The fashionable dinner hour was eleven in the forenoon, but the merchants generally dined at twelve, and the labouring people at one o'clock. Breakfast was taken at about seven in the morning; at which early hour, ladies, even of the highest rank, were wont to regale themselves, with hot meat and ale, for neither tea nor coffee were then known in England. In great mansions, dinner and supper were served in the large hall, where the table of the host was usually placed on a dais, or raised flooring. There was neither china nor glass to grace the board, but the plates and dishes were of pewter or wood, and the drinking cups of horn,

except where silver could be afforded. In every respectable family it was still customary to have a large silver saltcellar, which was placed in the centre of the table, and served as a sort of boundary mark, the superiors sitting above, the inferiors below, the salt. Table-linen and silver spoons were common at this period among the middle classes; but as forks had not yet come into use, our worthy ancestors of the sixteenth century were obliged to have recourse to their fingers, in the fashion of more ancient times. The citizens of London were especially famed for good eating and drinking, and the lord mayor was expected to set an example of hospitality, by keeping open house, and a plentiful table, all the year round.

The custom of observing festivals did not disappear with the Catholic religion, for people are never very ready to give up their enjoyments, and there were many seasons of merry-making in the course of the year. During the Christmas holidays, business was laid aside, and all people, from the queen and her court to the humblest peasant, devoted their time to merriment and feasting. On New Year's eve, the young people, in country towns and villages, used to carry round, from house to house, a large bowl, called the "wassail bowl," from an old Saxon word, implying, "I wish you health," filled with spiced ale; and every one who tasted it, was expected to give something to the bearers. The custom of the wassail cup is continued at the table of the lord mayor, to this very day; and this vessel, being filled with spiced wine, is sent round to each guest in turn, who tastes it, as a token of goodwill to every one present.

May-day was another great festival, when the rustics of every parish used to repair at midnight to the woods, where, like the fairies we read of in olden fictions, they sang and danced till morning light, and then returned to the village, carrying home with them branches of trees, wild flowers, and the may-pole, drawn by a team of oxen. This may-pole

was set up on the village green, or some other open place, and a queen of May chosen from among the village lasses, to whom due honours were paid during the day. Other characters were also assumed, such as those of Robin Hood, and all his band; and there were morris dancers, and minstrels, to add to the festivity of May-day.

Weddings, among persons of the lower classes, were always public, and the bride and bridegroom were accompanied to church by their friends and neighbours, a band of music playing before them, and a troop of young maidens following, crowned with flowers, and bearing a large bride-cake, to distribute among the crowd.

The daughters of country gentlemen, and even of noblemen residing on their own estates, used, in those days, to feed the poultry, and attend to the dairy; make their own dresses, starch their ruffs, and get up their own fine linen. Such accomplishments as these are certainly not suited to the taste of noblemen's daughters of the present age; still, there were many domestic duties in fashion among our ancestors that would be neither out of place, nor unbecoming, even in the nineteenth century.

Among other events of a domestic nature, in the time of Queen Elizabeth, was the introduction of coaches, which were first brought into use in this country by a Dutchman, and were much ridiculed by the English, until they had experienced the ease and comfort of such vehicles, when coaches became so much in request, that the price of leather rose considerably, and coachmaking became a flourishing trade. A heavy clumsy kind of vehicle had been occasionally used by ladies of quality, in the form of a waggon, covered with red cloth; but the common mode of riding was on horseback. A lady then rode on a pillion saddle, behind a gentleman, and even the queen herself rode behind her lord chamberlain, on the same horse. People in ill health sometimes travelled in a litter, a machine somewhat resembling a hammock,

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slung between two horses, which was common all over Europe during the middle ages. Hackney-coaches did not come into use till about fifty years afterwards, and it was still later that stage coaches were first established, as the roads were generally so bad, at this period, that they were not passable for wheeled carriages.

A manufactory for needles was set up in England in the reign of Elizabeth, by a native of Germany; and the first watch seen in this country was presented to the queen by a German.

In the year 1588, the first paper mill in England was established at Dartford, in Kent. Paper had long been one of the chief manufactures of France, and the manufacture of this article was now, with many other useful arts, brought here by the French and Flemish Protestants, who were driven by persecution from their own countries, and were gladly received and protected by the queen; for Elizabeth was fully aware of the advantages to be derived from the settlement of so many clever foreigners, who could instruct the English in various branches of art with which they were unacquainted, and thus create new employment for them; which was a point of the highest importance, since the country being now free from warfare, its population was rapidly increasing. Great numbers of the refugees settled in the towns of Canterbury, Norwich, Colchester, Maidstone, and Southampton, which, like most of the ancient walled cities and boroughs, had been falling to decay since the period of the civil wars, but now became populous places of business; and it was by such settlements of foreigners, that the cotton manufactories at Manchester, and other places, were first established.

The art of weaving stockings was invented by a Mr. Lee, a student of Cambridge; but this useful invention was not encouraged for a long time, and people continued to wear cloth hose, or knitted stockings. The first pair of silk stockings made in England was knitted by Mrs. Montague, a silk-

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woman, and given to queen Elizabeth, who was so much pleased with them, that she never again wore cloth hose Soon afterwards, a city apprentice, named Thomas Burdet, made a pair of worsted stockings, which he presented to lord Pembroke, who regarded them as a valuable acquisition to his wardrobe.

Queen Elizabeth was so extravagant in dress, that, when she died, three thousand gowns were found in her wardrobe. The female dress, of this period, was very stiff and ugly; the gown was open in front, and the boddice, which was very long, resembled stays laced in front; the enormous ruff round the neck was of lawn, stiffened with yellow starch; and the Mary queen of Scots' cap, with a peak in front, was very fashionable. The general walking-dress was a farthingale, which was a full black silk petticoat put on over the dress, like the Spanish basquina; and it was very usual to wear, in the streets, a mask of black velvet, and to carry a small mirror, hanging at the girdle. The chopines were Italian shoes, with such high heels, that it was difficult to walk in them. The wives of the aldermen, and other chief citizens, wore velvet bonnets, but a common out-door covering for the head was a hood. The male attire of this period was a doublet, or jacket, fastened round the waist with a belt; a high-crowned hat, tapering towards the top; a cloak, and a sword. A scarlet cloak, and a hat ornamented with a gold band and a long feather, denoted that the wearer was a man of high rank.

The citizens and their wives, when they went abroad in the evening, were attended by their apprentices, who carried lanthorns in their hands, and clubs over their shoulders. London was now so much extended, by the progress of the buildings around it, that the citizens, in order to enjoy the fresh air, used to take their families, on Sundays, to such places as are now called tea-gardens, where they regaled themselves with cakes and ale; nor was it thought at all vulgar to do so.

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By all this you may perceive that our forefathers had, by this time, arrived about midway between the barbarism of the feudal ages, and the refinement of the present time. That there was still much of barbarism remaining, is quite clear, from the accounts we have of their favourite amusements, which were bull-baiting, bear baiting, and cock-fighting; and, what must greatly increase our horror of such inhuman sports, they were practised on Sundays, and attended by ladies as well as gentlemen of rank and fashion. The queen was herself fond of such unfeminine amusements, and not unfrequently ordered a bull-baiting, in the tilt yard of the palace, for her own particular pleasure; yet she exhibited signs of a more refined taste in her admiration of the works of the accomplished poet, Shakspere, and by encouraging a better style of dramatic performances than had hitherto been known.

The plays of Shakspere, and other writers who flourished in the reign of Elizabeth, were acted in regular theatres, licensed by the sovereign, which were beginning to supersede the travelling shows mentioned at a former period. But the theatres of those times were but faint rudiments of the stately buildings of modern times. The superior part of the audience sat upon stools on the stage, where they amused themselves with smoking during the performance, while the lower orders occupied the pit, the price of admission being two-pence. The actors had not always appropriate dresses, or any scenery; so that they used to write large labels, and hang them up over the stage, to inform the spectators what scene they intended to represent, as "This is a castle," "This is a forest," &c. For many years, the female characters were played by boys, or young men, and the performance always took place in the middle of the day. While Oliver Cromwell ruled in England, the theatres were suppressed, but were revived at the restoration of Charles the Second.

JAMES THE FIRST.

1603 to 1625.

QUEEN ELIZABETH, on her death-bed, had desired that she might be succeeded by her cousin, king James of Scotland, the only son of Mary, queen of Scots. James had been accused of a want of natural affection, in not having endeavoured to rescue his mother from imprisonment and death; but he was of so passive a disposition, that scarcely any injury would have induced him to go to war; and moreover, he was afraid of provoking the wrath of the imperious queen of England, who, as he well knew, was far superior to him in power.

By the accession of this monarch to the throne of England, the two kingdoms were at length united under one sovereign, and have ever since borne the name of Great Britain. This union, which ended all fears of national warfare in future between England and Scotland, was highly pleasing to the people, who received the new king with every mark of respect; but it was very soon discovered that he was a weak-minded man, and extremely vain of the learning he had acquired under his tutor, Buchanan, a celebrated Scottish poet and historian. The English soon began to feel some degree of contempt for their good-natured, facetious, but timid, sovereign. A great portion of them, too, were dissatisfied with his conduct respecting the church, for the Catholics had expected that, being the son of Mary, who was so great a friend to their religion, he would have either restored, or at least tolerated, the Catholic faith; while the Puritans, whose opinions had been very generally adopted in Scotland, thought they should now become the chief party in

England; but James did not interfere with any of the arrangements which had been made by queen Elizabeth in regard to the church.

Now, whether this was the real cause of a conspiracy that was formed, to destroy the king and his whole parliament, I cannot say; but some persons, who were desirous of a change in the government, laid a plan, which, if it had not been discovered, must have produced a total revolution in the country. This was the famous gunpowder plot, in which Guy Faux made so conspicuous a figure. Most young folks are well acquainted with his name, but as they may not all know exactly how he obtained so much notoriety, I will give an account of the gunpowder plot for their information.

It was in the second year of the reign of king James, that a nobleman, called lord Monteagle, received an anonymous letter, advising him to stay away from the parliament that was to meet on the fifth of November, and at which the king was to be present. Being rather alarmed at the contents of this letter, he took it to the Secretary of State, and he laid it before the king, who, from several expressions contained in it, guessed that some mischief was intended by means of gunpowder; but he desired that no notice should be taken till the night before the meeting of parliament. The cellars under the House of Lords were then searched, and several barrels of gunpowder found in them, hidden under some coals. A man was also discovered, concealed in a corner, with a dark lanthorn in his hand, and a bundle of matches in his pocket; and this man was Guy Faux, an officer in the Spanish service, who had laid a train of powder, which communicated with the barrels, intending to set fire to it, and so to blow up both houses of parliament, when the king and all the members were there assembled. It is impossible to imagine what would have been the consequences to the nation, if Providence had not interfered to prevent the execution of this wicked plot, which would have destroyed in one instant, the sovereign

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and most of the nobility, as well as many of the wealthiest and most influential commoners in the kingdom.

Guy Faux, however, was not the contriver, but was merely the instrument of others, and was a desperate man, who was willing to risk his life through a blind zeal for the Catholic religion; having, however, adopted precautions to escape being blown up with the rest. Faux and most of the conspirators, were apprehended, and put to death; and the escape of the king, on this day, was till lately commemorated in the English churches by a thanksgiving.

Another plot, of a less terrible nature, had been laid before this, to deprive James of the sovereignty of England, but it did not succeed; and I should not mention it, but that Sir Walter Raleigh was a party concerned, and was, in consequence, confined in the Tower for thirteen years, during which time he wrote his "History of the World," one of the best means he could possibly have adopted for relieving the tediousness of a long imprisonment. At last, tired of seeing nothing but the gloomy walls of the Tower, he pretended that he knew of a rich gold mine, in South America, and obtained leave to go out with a company of adventurers, that he might direct them where to find it. The expedition proved a failure, and he was obliged to return home, when he was beheaded for his former treason; which was thought very unjust, as so many years had elapsed since the commission of his offence.

In the meanwhile, the king gave great dissatisfaction by his love of pleasure, and dislike to the fatigues of business. He was fond of hunting, and cock-fighting, and was addicted to excessive drinking; and when his ministers complained of his neglect of state affairs, he only replied that he should not make a slave of himself, and that his health required exercise and amusement. Then, he was so wasteful, that he was always in want of money, which he raised by any method that presented itself, however mean and disgraceful. He

sold titles, and privileges of all kinds, injured the commerce of the country by monopolies, and, for a consideration of money, granted patents, which he sometimes took away from those to whom he had sold them.

This prodigal and unprincipled monarch sold a licence to the Dutch to fish off the British coast; and among other unjust ways of obtaining money, he levied duties, without the consent of parliament, upon all goods exported or imported. Yet, withal, he was so poor, that his servants have been known to stop the treasurer in the street, and insist on being paid their wages; and his tradespeople have even refused to send in the necessary supplies for the household, till their bills were paid. This was all very disgraceful to the king of Great Britain, yet James was so obstinate, that he would never take advice, and so conceited, that he fancied no one was as wise as himself.

He was also very tyrannical with regard to religion, and persecuted equally the Catholics and Puritans, by fines, imprisonments, and the confiscation of their estates. It was this treatment which induced many families about this time to emigrate to America, where they settled colonies, and became the founders of New England, and other American states; preferring a distant and uncultivated land, where they might worship God in their own way, to their own rich and fertile country, where liberty of conscience was denied them. It is wonderful to read of the privations to which people were ready to submit, at that period, for the support of their religious principles. There were no hardships they would not endure, no sacrifice they would not make, provided they could find a spot on earth where they might set up their church, and pray in peace. Such was the foundation of the United States of North America, most of which were settled by emigrants, while the Stuarts reigned in England.

James the First made an attempt to civilize Ireland, the natives of which had become, by long oppression and cruel

persecution, a wild and barbarous race, constantly at war with the English residents, who could not keep them in subjection. The king, therefore, sent out a great number of people to settle in the province of Ulster, and to introduce useful arts and manufactures into that province; but many of the settlers were killed in the reign of Charles the First by the native Irish, who were constantly in a state of rebellion, owing to the want of a proper mode of government. King James thought he should be able to keep them in order by a larger military force; but he did not like the idea of maintaining a great number of soldiers; therefore, with his usual meanness and cunning, he created a new order of nobility, that of Baronets, and made a regulation that every gentleman who desired to be made a baronet, might be admitted to that honour by paying him a certain sum of money, and agreeing to maintain thirty soldiers in Ireland for three years.

In the year 1617, James sent commissioners into Scotland, to force the people, who were mostly Puritans, to conform to the rules of the English church, by which he gave great offence to his Scottish subjects, and caused great future troubles in that country.

The grand favourite, and chief minister, of James the First, was the celebrated George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, a bold and arrogant man, who was his constant companion, and exercised an unlimited influence over him. The king was very desirous that his eldest son, Charles, should marry the daughter of Philip the Third, of Spain. The prince, however, was averse to taking a wife he had never seen; but being fond of adventures, he, and the duke of Buckingham, persuaded the king to let them go to Spain, without apprising the lady of their intended visit. Their plan was to travel in disguise, with only a single attendant each. The king, after much persuasion, having given his consent to this romantic scheme, they set off for Paris, calling themselves John and Thomas Smith, and there prince Charles first saw

the princess Henrietta, daughter of the good king, Henry the Fourth; but this was some time after the untimely death of that monarch. Henrietta of France afterwards became Charles's wife, for he did not marry the Infanta of Spain, although he took so much trouble to see her.

When our knights-errant had arrived at Madrid, they soon made themselves known, and were received with all due honours. The queen presented Charles with gloves, perfumes, and jewels; the king sent him a basin and ewer of gold; apartments were prepared for him in the palace, furnished with the utmost splendour, and he was attended by the first grandees of the court. The Infanta was not displeased with her lover, and he appeared equally charmed with his intended bride; but when every thing was arranged for the marriage, and the royal pair were only waiting for a dispensation from the pope, without which a Catholic princess could not marry a Protestant prince, Charles, who, it seems, had changed his mind, suddenly produced a letter from his father, commanding him to return without delay.

It was impossible for the marriage to take place before his departure, because the dispensation had not come from Rome; it was, therefore, arranged, that the princess should follow Charles to England, and he quitted Spain with every appearance of intending to fulfil his engagement, but with a secret determination never to see the lady again. The match was finally broken off; and it is supposed that the prince was entirely influenced in his dishonourable conduct towards the royal family of Spain, by the duke of Buckingham, who had given great offence at the Spanish court by his arrogant manners, and had quarrelled with Olivarez, the Spanish minister.

It is necessary that you should know that king James was constantly at variance with his parliament, because he wanted to make laws, and levy taxes, without its consent and contrary to the constitution of the country. Such had

been the practice of queen Elizabeth, but she possessed more wisdom and prudence than James, who was not by any means a fit man to be entrusted with absolute power. Besides, the people of England were becoming warmly opposed to a despotic government, and determined that the king should be obliged to govern according to the laws, and not according to his own will. I notice this, because it was the desire of possessing arbitrary power, that led to the untimely death of Charles the First, as it afterwards did to that of Louis the Sixteenth, of France.

The king died in the year 1625, in the twenty-third year of his reign.

In this reign, the streets of London were first paved with broad flat stones, each inhabitant paving the way before his own house; and it was ordered that the fronts of new houses should be built of stone or brick.

About this time, also, the steam-engine was invented, or probably the knowledge of the use of steam was brought from Italy, and was first applied to draw up sand and gravel from the bottoms of rivers.

Thames-water had been carried into almost every house in the city of London, by means of leaden pipes, in the time of queen Elizabeth; and that, together with other regulations which contributed towards the cleanliness of streets and houses, doubtless improved the health of the inhabitants, though it had not the effect of exempting London from visitations of the plague, of which the most awful in the records of our country, occurred in the reign of Charles the Second. Fortunately for us, this dreadful distemper has disappeared from our favoured island, a blessing for which we cannot be too sincerely grateful to the Almighty; and we ought, at the same time, to hold in high estimation the valuable science of medicine, and to remember that, formerly, many lives were sacrificed from the want of skilful physicians.

James the First founded Chelsea College, as an institution

for the study of divinity, but it soon fell into decay; and the college, in the reign of Charles the Second, was turned into an hospital for old and disabled soldiers.

Mulberry trees were first planted in England during this reign; and copper coins were introduced, instead of leaden tokens, which had hitherto been used.

CHARLES THE FIRST.

1625 to 1649.

JAMES THE FIRST was succeeded by his son, the unfortunate Charles, who suffered death, in consequence of attempting to exercise a too absolute power over his subjects. Charles had many good qualities as a man, for he was amiable in temper, pious, charitable, and affectionate in his own family; but he thought that, as a king, he ought to have unlimited authority, that no one should dare to say that he did wrong, and that the parliament ought to have no power beyond that of sanctioning his decrees. These principles of absolute government, which had been instilled into his mind from his earliest infancy, led to his untimely fate, and to the civil wars that, for a time, destroyed all the domestic happiness of the country.

King Charles married the princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the Fourth, of France, and it is probable that if she had been a wiser or more prudent woman, she might have prevented many of the calamities that fell upon the nation during this unhappy reign, by using her influence over her husband, to lead him to adopt a different line

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of conduct; but she was vain and haughty, and encouraged those sentiments in favour of despotism that led to his final ruin.

The first disputes between the king and his parliament were occasioned by the refusal of the latter to grant him so much money as he wanted, to carry on the foreign wars in which he had engaged. These supplies were always raised by taxation, and as the parliament would not levy new taxes for that purpose, the king did so on his own authority, which was contrary to the laws of the country, and therefore displeasing to the people. I cannot enter into the particulars of the quarrels between the king and the House of Commons; it is sufficient to say, that they all had one source and one object; the king desiring to act without control, the Commons being determined to maintain their proper share of the government of the country.

The duke of Buckingham was still chief minister of state, and was disliked by the people for his arrogant manners, and because it was supposed he gave bad advice to the king. At length, he was assassinated by a disbanded officer, named Felton, as he was on the point of setting out from Portsmouth, to aid the people of Rochelle, when that town was besieged by Cardinal Richelieu. The murderer was executed, but the people were rejoiced at the death of Buckingham, to whom they attributed all the oppressions under which they were suffering, from heavy taxation, and "forced loans," so called from persons being required to lend money to the king, and on their refusal, suffering imprisonment, in violation of the laws of the kingdom.

The death of the duke, however, made no difference in the state of affairs, for the king continued to pursue the same arbitrary system; till at last he determined to dispense with parliaments altogether, and, for eleven years, actually governed without one.

During the whole of that time, the Puritans were very harshly treated, and a great many of their families emigrated

to America, and settled more colonies in the wild and uncultivated tracts of New England. Yet, in spite of the severities to which they were subjected, the number of the Puritans increased daily, and the more they were persecuted, the more zealous they were in maintaining their faith.

They were afterwards called Roundheads, from a fashion of wearing their hair closely cropped; they dressed in the plainest manner, wearing coarse cloth of gray, black, or brown, and the old high-crowned hat; while the Cavaliers, an appellation that distinguished the court party, wore ringlets hanging over their shoulders, silk or satin doublets, with slashed sleeves, lace collars, a broad flat beaver hat with feathers, an embroidered sword belt, and a short cloak, generally thrown over one shoulder. Similar distinctions existed between the ladies of the two parties, the head-dress of the Puritans being a close cap, hood, or high-crowned hat; while the female royalists wore ringlets and feathers.

The enmity of the two parties rose to such a height, that a civil war seemed inevitable, and the more so, as the king and his council had made an order, forbidding the Puritans to leave the country; yet he was imprudent enough to draw upon himself the resentment of the whole Scottish people, by attempting to make them conform to the rules of the Church of England. The Scots were soon in a state of rebellion, refused to acknowledge the authority of the king, and even raised an army to invade England.

Charles was now in a very distressed situation, surrounded by enemies, and without money; he, therefore, once more called together a parliament, in the hope of being relieved from his difficulties. But this was a vain hope, for many places, that had the right of sending members to parliament, elected Puritans, so that the House of Commons consisted chiefly of men of that persuasion; and, consequently, the king found very few friends there. He wished, however, to keep on good terms with them; and, with that view,

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consented to many acts which he disliked, particularly the execution of his minister, the earl of Strafford, to whom he was warmly attached.

The Commons being now the stronger party, demanded so many concessions from the king, that he said, at last, he saw they meant to take the entire government to themselves, and leave him nothing but the mere name of sovereign.

In the midst of these troubles, a formidable rebellion broke out in Ireland, which had never been entirely subjected, notwithstanding the efforts made by king James for that purpose. The native Irish chieftains, taking advantage of the king's declining power, resolved to make an effort for the recovery of their independence; they therefore attacked the English colonies that had been settled in the northern and other parts of the island.

This was a dreadful insurrection, and great numbers of the English settlers fell victims to the barbarity of the natives. King Charles heard the bad news, as he was returning from Scotland, where he had been to endeavour to put an end to the discontents in that country, in which he had succeeded; but it was by yielding to all the just demands of the Scottish subjects, who only desired that no alteration should be made in their church government.

He would have been very glad, now, to have made some concessions in England, but many of the Puritans, having become republicans, were bent upon annulling the kingly power; and although this intention was not openly avowed, it was made so apparent by the conduct of the House of Commons, that Charles saw he must either give up every prerogative of the crown, or go to war with the parliament; he chose the latter alternative, and set up the royal standard at Nottingham, on which were inscribed these words, "Give unto Cæsar his due." He was supported by many of the nobility and gentry; but the people of the towns, and the yeomen and farmers in general, joined with the parliament.

Such was the commencement of the civil wars between the Cavaliers and the Roundheads, which have furnished subjects for many an interesting tale. It is surprising that, during these troubled times, trade should have continued to flourish, and that all the large towns should have increased in wealth and importance; but it ought to be observed, that the contending parties did not seek to injure private property; and that they neither set fire to towns, nor maltreated the inhabitants. The people, however, suffered much from both armies living upon them at free quarters, which means, that the soldiers were furnished with food and lodging, and other necessaries, without payment. But far more serious were the domestic miseries that arose from the discord occasioned in families, by some of the members taking one side, and some the other.

The leaders of the parliamentary forces were the earl of Essex, general Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell, the last of whom was a country gentleman, of great talent as a military commander, a politician, and a ruler; for, after the death of the king, he took the helm of the state, and governed as a sovereign, under the title of "Protector."

Charles the First had struggled against his enemies for three years, and many battles had been fought, when the parliamentary forces gained a decisive victory at Naseby; and the unfortunate king, after remaining for some time in Oxford, escaped in disguise, and fled to the Scottish army, hoping that in Scotland he should be acknowledged and protected. But he was mistaken; for the Scots gave him up to the English parliament, and from that time to his death, he may be considered as having been a prisoner; for although he was not actually placed in confinement, he was so closely watched, that it was impossible for him to free himself from his enemies, who were bent on his destruction.

The leaders of the parliamentary party wished to make terms with him, but their demands were such as he thought

he could not grant with honour; and, at last, weary of the situation in which he was placed, he contrived to leave Hampton-court secretly, and to reach the Isle of Wight, hoping to make his escape from the kingdom; but he was overtaken, and having surrendered to the governor, he was shut up in Carisbrook castle.

The Scots then, ashamed of their desertion, sent an army into England, under the duke of Hamilton; but it was defeated by the invincible Cromwell, while an insurrection in Kent and Essex, in favour of Charles, was quelled by general Fairfax. The parliament then entered into fresh negociations with the king, who agreed to almost every thing which he had before refused; but all was then unavailing, for the army returning victorious, colonel Pride was sent by Cromwell to Westminster, with a strong detachment of soldiers, who seized on forty-one of the members, known to be royalists, as they were going into the Parliament House, and prevented more from entering; so that all those who were inclined towards the king were kept out by force. The unhappy monarch had now no friends in power; he was declared guilty of treason in going to war with his parliament; and a vote was passed in the House of Commons, that he should be brought to trial. In pursuance of this resolution, he was conducted to London, tried in Westminster-hall, and condemned to death on the 27th of January, 1649, in a court of justice appointed by the Commons, the sentence being pronounced by the president, John Bradshaw; and, on the 30th, he was beheaded, in front of the banqueting-house, at Whitehall.

At this time, his elder sons, the princes Charles and James, were in Holland, but two of his younger children were allowed to see him on the night before his execution; and an affecting scene it must have been, for they were both old enough to understand his situation, and although he was an arbitrary king, he was one of the most indulgent and

affectionate of parents. The queen had, in the early part of the war, assisted her husband, by procuring men and money from France; but when she found that his cause had become hopeless, she sought refuge in her native country, with her two elder sons, who afterwards found an asylum at the Hague, with their sister, the princess of Orange, wife of the Stadtholder of Holland.

THE COMMONWEALTH

1649 to 1660.

ENGLAND was now without a king, the House of Lords was soon abolished, and the entire government was vested in the House of Commons. This revolution was, no doubt, productive of some good effects, particularly that of checking the progress of despotism, which was proceeding rapidly to destroy all the rights of the people; but, although it might be well to put an end to absolute monarchy, it was soon found that a monarchy, where the power of the sovereign is restrained by the law, is better than a republic, and more likely to promote the happiness of the people.

The Scots were so far from wishing to be without a king, that they proclaimed Charles the Second, who repaired to Scotland in consequence, and found the whole country ready to arm in his cause, provided he subscribed to their covenant, by which he was to give up all control over their church, or their religion, and embrace it himself.

Meanwhile, Cromwell had been to Ireland, where he had entirely suppressed the rebellion, and reduced the whole

country to submission; which caused such joy in England, that, on his return, he was received with the highest honours; but his task, as a general, was not yet ended,, for when he arrived in London, he heard that Charles had landed in Scotland, and, in consequence of this news, he set off for the north, without delay, at the head of a large army.

The Scots were defeated at Dunbar, with great loss; but the young king collected together what troops he could, and marched boldly into England, being joined by many gentlemen who were still attached to the royal cause; but Cromwell followed with all speed, and an obstinate battle was fought at Worcester, where the royalists were again routed, and Charles himself narrowly escaped being made prisoner.

Nothing now remained for him but to leave the country without delay; but this was no easy matter, for the Roundheads were searching for him in every direction, and it was only through the faithful attachment of some of his partisans, who concealed him in their houses, and supplied him with various disguises, that he at length safely embarked for Normandy.

Many stories are related of the adventures of Charles the Second, who was as gay and heartless a monarch, notwithstanding his misfortunes, as ever sat upon the English throne. It is said that he stayed several days at a farm-house, where, in the dress of a peasant, he was employed to cut faggots in the wood; it is also related that he lay hidden among the branches of an old oak, while a troop of horsemen passed beneath, and talked aloud about the king, observing how glad they should be if they could find him. Yet he was gay amidst all his distresses, and played many a prank among the friends who were so kind as to conceal him from the pursuit of his enemies.

Cromwell, having now attained to the height of power, resolved to support his authority by a military force; which was the plan pursued by Bonaparte, at a later period; and,

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in many respects, these two commanders strongly resembled each other. The authority of Cromwell over the soldiers was unlimited; and one of the most extraordinary instances of their implicit obedience to his will, and also of his own determined and energetic character, was the manner in which he dissolved the "Long Parliament," so called, because it had sat without interruption for twelve years, the longest continuance of any parliament in England without a new election. Now, Cromwell entertained very ambitious views with regard to the government. He was not a man to be contented with anything short of absolute power; and as that could not be obtained while the present parliament was in existence, he resolved to put an end to it by his own authority; an instance of despotism scarcely ever equalled by any man who was not an absolute sovereign.

Being perfectly aware that such a step as the dismissal of a number of men who had so long kept the government in their own hands, could only be effected by very bold means, he summoned a council of his officers, the greater number of whom owed their advancement to his favour, and looked to him for future preferment, and they very readily agreed to present a petition to the parliament for the arrears of their pay, as they had not been regularly paid for some time. This petition also contained a request that the members should fix a time for the speedy dissolution of the parliament; but Cromwell expected that this proposal would be rejected, and he hoped so too, because that would give him a pretext for the violence he meditated.

All happened according to his wishes. The parliament treated the petition with scorn, and declared that whoever in future should presume to send any such remonstrances, should be adjudged guilty of treason, and punished accordingly. Cromwell immediately repaired to the House of Commons, with three hundred soldiers; some of whom he placed at the door, some in the lobby, and some on the stairs, and then he

entered the assembly, and, having listened for a short time to the debate, he stamped with his foot, as a signal for the soldiers to enter. He then addressed the members, reproaching them with their bad conduct, declared they were no longer a parliament, and bade them begone, to make room for honester men. The assembled members looked at each other with astonishment, but seeing it was useless to resist, surrounded as they were by an armed force, they left the house; and Cromwell, having ordered the doors to be locked, put the key in his pocket, and returned to his officers at Whitehall.

Such was the dissolution of the Long Parliament; an event much spoken of in the history of this country, as one of the most daring acts ever performed. Oliver Cromwell then issued writs to summon another parliament, composed of men on whom he believed he could rely, and over whom he exercised almost absolute control; so that the government was entirely in his own hands; and as he was shortly afterwards made "Protector of the Commonwealth," he became, in fact, a sovereign.

In the early part of his administration, a war broke out with the Dutch, which originated in some disputes respecting commercial affairs. These disagreements had been aggravated by the assassination of the English envoy in Holland, by some Scottish royalists, as well as by the subsequent insults offered to the English ambassador by the friends of the prince of Orange. During this war, some great naval victories were gained by the brave admiral Blake, over the Dutch commander, Van Tromp, who was at length killed, and the Dutch were obliged to sue for peace.

But although the power of the English was increasing abroad, they were not happy at home; for Cromwell, like all usurpers, was obliged to be a tyrant, in order to support his authority. He had spies everywhere, to watch the proceedings of all who were suspected of being royalists; many were

imprisoned in the Tower; and some, particularly the prisoners taken at the battle of Worcester, were transported, or sold as slaves to the planters in America.

At that time, the Puritans were so austere in their manners, that all kinds of amusements were forbidden, all holidays abolished, and even Christmas pastimes prohibited, because the Puritans kept Christmas more like a fast than a feast. But it is not to be supposed that the majority of the people would give up all their innocent recreations, and, no doubt, they made merry in secret, although they were obliged to refrain from the usual festivities of the season.

The great poet, Milton, was one of the celebrated characters of Cromwell's time, and having distinguished himself as a friend to the Commonwealth, was employed by the Protector as his Latin secretary; but on the restoration of king Charles, he was obliged to leave the court, and became comparatively poor. To add to his misfortunes, he lost his sight, but he did not give up his literary pursuits; and it was when he was old, blind, and in poverty, that he composed his noble poem of "Paradise Lost."

During the Commonwealth, coffee was first introduced into England by a Turkey merchant, who also brought with him a Greek servant, who knew how to make it, and whom he set up in business in St. Michael's alley, Cornhill; and thus was established the first coffee-house in London. Sugar, in small quantities, was imported from the West Indies; new sorts of cloths, probably muslins, were brought from the East Indies, and manufactures in imitation of them were begun in England.

The Protector made many good laws with regard to trade and commerce, which had never been in a more prosperous state than during his administration. In the year 1655, the island of Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Penn, and has ever since belonged to England; and several other conquests were made, both in the East and West Indies.

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It was about this time that the Jews were re-admitted into England, in consequence of a petition, addressed by a doctor of their persuasion to Cromwell, who granted permission for their re-establishment in this country, from which they had been banished for the space of 365 years.

The General Post-office was instituted, and banking-houses were first established in London, during Cromwell's time. There were letter carriers before this, called posts; but the system by which the transit of letters was regulated, was so imperfect, and the expense so great, that the generality of the people could not avail themselves of the post as a means of communicating with their friends; but after the new regulations had been made, the benefit was greatly extended, although the sending of letters was not such a general practice as it is at present; for writing was still comparatively a rare accomplishment among the trading classes, who constituted the most numerous part of the population. The fine arts were much cultivated in the reign of Charles the First, who possessed a rich collection of pictures, and was the patron of the celebrated Flemish painter, Sir Antony Vandyck.

The origin of banking was this. Before the civil war, the rich had been in the habit of carrying their money and jewels to the Mint, in the Tower; but it happened that king Charles, being in want of money, was base enough to seize on a large sum that had been placed there for security: wherefore, the people, after that, preferred trusting their wealth to the keeping of the goldsmiths, who constituted the most eminent company of tradesmen in London, and who thus became the first bankers.

Oliver Cromwell died in the year 1658, and was succeeded by his son Richard, a quiet, inoffensive man, who soon discovered that to be great is not always to be happy; therefore he resigned his dignities, and returned to his former peaceful life. Cromwell had two sons and three daughters, who survived him, but none of his children appear to have inherited his

ambition, or to have the slightest desire to occupy a position in society above their original station.

The nation now being without a head, there was much confusion in the parliament, till General Monk, a man of great ability, who had in the late wars first served under the king, and then under Cromwell, began to communicate with Charles, with a view to his restoration, and stated the terms on which it was to be attempted. He had contrived to get the command of the army, and in the first meeting of a new parliament, he boldly proposed that the king should be restored, and read a letter from Charles, in which that prince promised a general pardon to all who had taken part against him, except his father's judges, and also guaranteed full liberty with regard to religion, which was a point of still deeper and more general interest. The letter was answered by loud acclamations, and the king was proclaimed without delay.

This change occasioned so much joy, that large bonfires were lighted all over London, the bells rang merrily, maypoles were set up, a day of public thanksgiving was appointed, and oxen were roasted whole to feast the people.

THE RESTORATION.

1660 to 1685.

SELDOM had there been such a general rejoicing as that which greeted the return of king Charles to his native land: but, unfortunately, the people went from one extreme to the other, and because they were glad to be relieved from the re-

straints to which they had been subjected under the government of the rigid Puritans, they became far too fond of pleasure, and the king and his courtiers set a bad example by their excessive gaiety, immorality, and extravagance. Fortunately, this evil example did not extend its influence much beyond the capital; for in the country, the good squires lived in the same plain but hospitable manner for which they were so distinguished in the days of queen Elizabeth.

The great difficulty that attended the restoration of the king was, the restitution of lands that had come into the possession of new owners during the Commonwealth. All lands belonging to the crown, the bishops, and such of the royalists as had been obliged to leave the country, had been sold by the parliament or by Cromwell; but now that the great churchmen and royalist nobles were restored to their former rank and influence, they demanded that their estates should be given back to them; which was a reasonable expectation; yet such an arrangement pressed heavily, and most unjustly, upon those who had purchased them, since they were to be deprived of their possessions without the least compensation; nevertheless, the former masters returned in triumph to their old domains, while the commissioners appointed to eject the new proprietors, only answered to their complaints of the injustice of the proceedings, by saying, that they ought to have known, when they bought the estates, that they would be obliged to give them up, if the king should ever be restored to the throne.

One of the first acts of Charles and the parliament, after the king's return, was to bring to trial those who had been concerned in the death of Charles the First, when several of them were executed, others imprisoned or fined; and the rest contrived to escape from the kingdom.

Charles was now inclined to marriage, and there were many princesses in Europe, who would have had no objection to be made queen of England; but I believe he thought more

about the fortune than the lady, for he chose the one with whom the largest dower was offered. This was Catherine of Portugal, sister of Alphonso the Sixth, who gave her, in addition, to a very large sum of money, the island of Bombay, in the East Indies, and Tangier, on the coast of Barbary, the latter being valuable as a trading port. The princess, thus richly endowed, came to England, and was married; but she was far from being happy, for Charles was an unkind husband, and never bestowed much attention on his wife, although she was very amiable.

In the early part of this reign, a new war broke out with the Dutch, who, as I told you before, were a great commercial nation, and sent out trading vessels to every part of the world; but they sometimes interfered with the foreign settlements belonging to other countries; and this was the cause of quarrel with the English. Several desperate battles were fought at sea between the fleets of the two countries, but neither of them derived much advantage from the contest; which was the case with regard to many wars of that time; and that is the reason why I sometimes do not mention them; for it is useless to tell of quarrels and fights, or to dwell upon the distresses occasioned by them, unless they lead to some important result.

The reign of Charles the Second is remarkable for two great domestic calamities that will never be forgotten; I mean the great plague, and the fire of London. For many centuries, there had scarcely been a reign in which the plague had not made its appearance; but never had it raged with such frightful violence, as in the year 1665. It was in the month of April, that symptoms of this terrible disorder were discovered among the poor people of St. Giles's, and the moment the fact became evident, the magistrates of every district adopted the precautions known at that period, to prevent it from spreading; but their care was ineffectual, and the whole of London was in a most deplorable condition.

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The court removed to Salisbury, and most who were able to do so, went into the country; but these were few, compared with those who were forced to remain exposed to the dreadful malady. Every house was shut up closely, and those houses that were infected, were marked by a red cross over the door, with the inscription, "Lord, have mercy upon us." As soon as this sign was made, no one dared to go in or out of the afflicted dwelling; and thus the streets were so deserted, that grass grew in them; and the only sound that interrupted the mournful stillness was, the noise of the carts that went round to carry away the dead. The archbishop of Canterbury, and many of the clergy, stayed in town, and exercised great charity during this period of general calamity, which lasted eight months, and is reckoned to have destroyed about one hundred and thirty thousand persons.

On the cessation of this frightful pestilence, the royal family returned to the palace at Whitehall; those families which had left town, came back again to their houses; the shops were re-opened, and the streets were once more thronged with living beings; but it is doubtful whether the disease was entirely subdued in the poorer districts till the great fire, which, by destroying a vast number of close, unwholesome buildings, and making room for a free circulation of air through the city, proved a lasting benefit, although it was a temporary misfortune.

In the month of September, 1666, a baker's shop, near the spot where the Monument now stands, was discovered to be on fire. A strong wind was blowing at the time, and the houses being chiefly of wood, and built closely together, the flames spread so rapidly, that whole streets were soon blazing; and, notwithstanding every effort to stop the progress of the conflagration, by blowing up piles of buildings with gunpowder, the fire continued to rage for three days, and destroyed about four hundred streets, with most of the churches and public buildings in the city.

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It is an extraordinary fact that, during this immense conflagration, very few lives were lost; some say, not more than six; but the terror and distress of the inhabitants may be easily imagined. The greater part of them encamped in the fields about Islington and Highgate, and the government did all it could for their relief, by raising subscriptions, and ordering markets to be held for supplying them with provisions. The property destroyed was immense, but much must have been rescued; as those who had timely notice before the fire reached their abodes, would naturally carry away their money, plate, and jewels. The city was speedily rebuilt in a much handsomer manner than before, the streets were widened, the houses rendered more airy, and brick was used instead of wood; and from a few years after that time, the plague has been unknown in this now healthy and splendid metropolis.

King Charles laid the first stone of the Royal Exchange, on the 23rd of August, 1667, on which occasion, he dined with the lord mayor, and knighted the sheriffs.

It is a curious fact, that the workmen in digging foundations for the new houses, found the remains of three streets or roadways one above another, the lowest portions of the walls and pavement being those of old Roman London, which must have been many feet below the present surface.

The promise which Charles had made before his restoration, with regard to the enjoyment of religious liberty throughout his dominions, was not strictly adhered to; for he not only insisted upon establishing Episcopacy in Scotland, but allowed a rigorous persecution to be carried on against all who did not conform to the rites of the church of England, and were, therefore, called Dissenters. By the term, episcopacy, we mean that the church is under the rule of the bishops, which is not the case in Scotland, where there are no high dignitaries of the church, as all the clergy are upon an equality. Neither did the Puritans acknowledge the autho-

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rity of the bishops; and, for that reason, they were deprived of all their power in the state, and subjected to heavy fines and imprisonment.

The Quakers, also, a new sect, that had lately appeared, were shamefully persecuted by fines, imprisonment, and various punishments, which made numbers of them go to the new settlements in America; the refuge of all who were oppressed on account of their religious opinions.

Among the many conspiracies formed and detected during the reign of Charles the Second, was one that is still often spoken of as the Rye-house plot. The Rye-house was a farm in Hertfordshire, belonging to a man named Rumbold, who, in conjunction with many others, laid a plan to assassinate the king as he came from Newmarket; but Charles returned sooner than he was expected, which caused the failure of the plot, and most of the conspirators were put to death.

Charles the Second owed his popularity to his extreme gaiety and good humour, which were almost the only good qualities he possessed, for he was unprincipled, irreligious, selfish, and careless of every thing but his own pleasures. He resorted to several disgraceful means of obtaining money, particularly by receiving secret bribes from Louis the Fourteenth, to support the French interest against that of his own subjects. It is said of this reign, that it was distinguished by good laws, but bad government. One of the best acts passed in this reign was that called the Habeas Corpus Act, by which no one can be kept in prison, without being brought to a fair trial; and this is still one of the best securities the people of this country have for their personal safety.

A standing army was established by Charles the Second, for the protection of the kingdom in peace, as well as in war; and several improvements were made in the internal state of the country, particularly with regard to the maintenance and employment of the destitute poor, and the better regulation of

the workhouses that afforded them an asylum. An act of parliament was also passed to oblige every householder in London to hang out a lanthorn before his house, from dusk till nine o'clock, during the winter months; for although such a regulation had once been made by one of the lord mayors, it had been discontinued, and now it was only ordered that the streets should be lighted till nine o'clock, because no respectable persons were accustomed to be abroad after that hour.

The silk manufacture of London was, at this period, very considerable, there being about forty thousand persons employed in that branch of industry alone; yet still it did not arrive at much perfection till the following reign, when the persecutions of the French Protestants by Louis the Fourteenth drove many hundreds of refugees to England, where they were of great service, in improving the arts and manufactures of this country.

In 1662, the first wire mill was established near Richmond, by a Dutchman. A very considerable trade was now carried on with India, by the East India Company, first established in the time of queen Elizabeth, who granted a charter, which excluded all other merchants, except those belonging to that Company, from trading to the East Indies; so that the East India Company grew very rich, and built many fine ships, which took out English goods to India, and brought home the produce and manufactures of the eastern countries. They paid a duty to the king for every thing they imported, which produced a considerable revenue to the crown. It was by this company that tea was first brought into England; but for a long time it was only sold as a liquid, and taken in the morning cold, without either milk or sugar, as gentlemen now take soda-water, as a remedy for the head-ache. About this period, however, we sometimes hear of tea-tables, therefore, we may presume that tea, as we take it now, was coming into use, although not generally, as it was still scarce and very dear.

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The gentlemen of Charles the Second's days wore enormous curled wigs, and lace cravats tied under the chin, instead of the graceful Vandyck collars worn in the time of Charles the First. Ladies of rank had left off the great ruffs of queen Elizabeth; their dresses had long trains, and tight sleeves reaching to the elbow; but citizens' wives and country ladies wore muslin or lawn neckerchiefs stiffened with yellow starch, as had long been the custom, with laced stomachers, farthingales, and steeple-crowned hats.

Hackney-coaches were now common in London, and sedan chairs were much in use: but there were no stage-coaches, so that a journey to London formed an important event in the life of a country squire and his family.

The Monument erected on Fish-street-hill, to commemorate the Fire of London, was commenced in 1671, and finished in 1677.

JAMES THE SECOND.

1685 to 1689.

On the death of Charles the Second, which happened in 1685, his brother James succeeded to the throne, somewhat against the inclinations of the major part of the people, because he was a Catholic; but as he promised that he would in no way interfere with the established religion of the country, he was permitted quietly to take his place at the head of the nation. No sooner, however, had he attained this high station, than, forgetting his engagements to the contrary, he tried by all the means in his power to restore the Catholic

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faith, and to recover that absolute power which had been possessed by queen Elizabeth. This was the cause of a change in the government called the "Revolution," by which the family of the Stuarts lost for ever the sovereignty of England, which was bestowed by act of Parliament on William of Nassau, prince of Orange, who was married to Mary, king James's eldest daughter. William was the Stadtholder, or sovereign prince of the Seven United Provinces, now known as Holland, and he was the nephew of the king of England, whose sister, you may remember, was the wife of the late prince of Orange, William's father.

As this Revolution was of great importance, I must give you some account of it. As long as James had no son, prince William's consort was regarded as the future sovereign by many of the people, who, on that account, were willing to bear with the tyranny of James, who was getting old, and might not, they thought, live long. But he very unexpectedly had a son born, and then the prince of Orange joined with the discontented English to dethrone him at once, and to prevent this child from succeeding; for the major part of the nation had resolved to put an end to the reign of the Stuarts, and to have no more despotic kings. Secret meetings were held among the nobility, and a correspondence was entered into with the prince of Orange, who was promised powerful support, if he should decide upon the invasion of England.

The conspiracy was carried on in the vault of an old mansion on the banks of the Thames, near Henley, called Lady-place, which had once been a monastery, but was at that time in the possession of lord Lovelace, a nobleman who was concerned in the plot. The vault had formerly been a burial place of the monks, and, as it was usually shut up, and not likely to be visited by the domestics of the family, it was chosen as the most secure place of meeting for those who were sure to lose their heads, if they were discovered. William of

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Orange had the curiosity to visit this gloomy vault, after he became king of England.

You may, perhaps, think it very unnatural conduct of the prince of Orange to invade the dominions of his father-in-law, without having any particular cause of complaint against him; but although they were nearly related, they were not on very amicable terms, as James was in close alliance with Louis the Fourteenth, from whom prince William had received much injurious treatment.

On the fifth of November, 1688, William landed with a large army at Torbay, in Devonshire, and was joined by numbers of the nobility and gentry; while James, who had made some vain attempts to regain the confidence of his subjects, was deserted by a great many of his principal officers, with their troops; and fled in dismay, without fighting one battle in defence of his crown. He went over to France with his queen and infant son, where he was received with great kindness by his old friend, Louis the Fourteenth; and thus ended his brief reign of three years.

Owing to the progress of navigation, and the settlement of so many states in North America, the commerce and wealth of Great Britain had greatly increased within the last fifty years. The French refugees came over in vast numbers, to escape from the cruelty of Louis the Fourteenth, who, about the time that James the Second ascended the throne, revoked a famous law, called the Edict of Nantes, which had been made by Henry the Fourth, for the protection of the Protestants in France. Many of these Protestants fled to this country, and a subscription being made for their relief, most of them were settled in silk factories in Spitalfields, by which arrangement, the silk manufacture of England was soon brought to rival that of France.

Nor was it only the silk trade that was benefited by the French. They introduced many arts that had hitherto been unknown in this country; and improved those with which the

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English were already acquainted, such as the making of clocks and watches, the manufacture of cutlery and hardware, plate glass, hats, writing-paper, &c. The only kind of paper made in England, before this time, was coarse and of indifferent colour; and all the fine window and plate glass had been brought from France.

About this time, charity schools were first opened, in London, for the instruction of poor children. The wages of the labouring people were very low, but many of the necessaries of life cost much less than they do at present; meat was not more than three-pence halfpenny per pound, and a sack of coals, of three bushels, might be purchased for six-pence. At that time, the poor could obtain but few of those necessaries which now form a material part of their sustenance, as, for instance, potatoes, which were only to be met with at the tables of the great, and were considered a delicacy, for they were not generally cultivated, and were, in consequence, both scarce and dear. This very nutritious article of food is said to have been brought from America by Sir Walter Raleigh, who first planted them on his estate in Ireland.

WILLIAM THE THIRD;

OR,

WILLIAM AND MARY.

1689 to 1702.

THE Revolution had been conducted so quietly, that no business was interrupted, even for a day; and our Dutch sovereign

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entered the palace with as much ease as if he had been the hereditary king of the country.

All the public bodies, such as the corporation of London, with the lord mayor, waited on him with addresses; the army and navy professed their willingness to obey his commands, and every one seemed ready to render him the respect due to the sovereign of their choice. Among the addresses presented to the new king, was one from the gentlemen of the law, who sent a deputation, headed by serjeant Maynard, who was so old a man, that the king made some comment on his age, saying that he must have outlived all the lawyers of his time. "That is true," replied the old gentleman, "and I should have outlived the laws too, if your highness had not come over to protect them."

This reign is sometimes called the reign of William and Mary; but the queen had, in reality, no share in the government; for the prince had refused to accept the crown, unless he should be invested with the sole authority, which was given accordingly; but, before he was crowned, he was required to sign an act, called the Bill of Rights, which was to secure the people from any more such encroachments on their liberty, as had been made by all the Stuarts. The Bill of Rights was, in fact, a new and more complete form of Magna Charta, by which the property and liberty of the people were secured against all undue exertion of authority on the part of the king, whose prerogatives were to be confined within certain limits, which he could not legally overstep. The act declared that, in future, taxes were not to be levied, nor money raised in any way, without the consent of parliament; elections were to be free; that is, the people were to be at liberty to vote for whomsoever they thought proper, without the intervention of the nobility, or the crown; the king was not to have the power of altering any law; all cruel punishments, such as the use of instruments of torture, cutting off ears or noses, &c. were to be abolished; inordinate fines

were not to be imposed; and the parliaments were to meet more frequently.

These were some of the good regulations produced by the Revolution, but there were many other changes made in the constitution of the country, the benefit of which is felt to this day; and, among them may be reckoned, toleration in religion, and the liberty of the press, which means, the freedom enjoyed by the people of England of writing and publishing whatever they please, provided they do not use this privilege for any seditious or treasonable purposes, or for the injury of the character of others.

In the meanwhile, Louis the Fourteenth had furnished King James with an army of French soldiers, and some ships, with which he sailed to Ireland, where he knew he should be well received, because the greater part of the Irish were Catholics, and did not like a protestant king. William, therefore, went over to Ireland, with a large force, and defeated James at the battle of the Boyne; so called, because it was fought on the banks of that river.

Disheartened at the loss of this battle, James hurried back to France, but the war was maintained in Ireland some time longer; and when, at last, the Irish were obliged to give up the cause, several thousands of them went into the service of the French king, and distinguished themselves, long afterwards, by their bravery, under the name of the Irish brigade.

The people of Scotland, except a few highland chiefs, had, from the first, consented to settle the crown on William of Orange, provided he would abolish Episcopacy in their own country, and allow the Presbyterian religion to be fully established; which he agreed to do: but the wild Highlanders were still inclined to James, probably from their attachment to the house of Stuart, more than from any affection towards himself; but, at last, they were induced, by a proclamation of pardon, to lay down their arms, and take the oath of fealty to the new king, William the Third. It was mentioned in

the proclamation, that the oath must be taken by a certain day, or the pardon would not be available.

It happened however, that one of the chiefs, named Macdonald, of Glencoe, by some accident, did not present himself before the sheriff till the day after that which was appointed; but the sheriff, after some hesitation, being satisfied that the delay was accidental, received the chieftain's oath of allegiance, and he went back to his clan with a feeling of perfect security; but, unfortunately, the king had been informed that Macdonald had neglected to appear by the day fixed, and he cruelly granted a warrant for the military execution of the chief and his whole clan. If this severe order had been given to any one possessed of Christian feelings, the dreadful catastrophe might have been prevented: but it was entrusted to one Captain Campbell, a base and ferocious officer, who marched down to Glencoe, with a party of soldiers, pretending that he had come to visit the chief.

Macdonald received him with that hospitality for which the Highlanders are so famed, and entertained him and his men, for a whole fortnight, in the most friendly manner, so that Campbell must have learned, in that time, that the chieftain had taken the proper oaths; but instead of making this known to the king, who would doubtless have sent a pardon to Macdonald, the treacherous officer and his soldiers suddenly attacked the people who had treated them so kindly, in the night, and put many of them to the sword, not sparing even the women and children. About forty of Macdonald's clan, with himself, were thus inhumanly sacrificed, and others, who escaped to the mountains, perished through cold and hunger. The houses in the valley of Glencoe were burned down, the cattle driven away, and all the effects belonging to that unfortunate clan seized by the soldiers; who could have had no motive for perpetrating so horrible a deed but that of plunder. The Scots were highly indignant at this act of barbarity, and greatly disliked King William ever afterwards.

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Another attempt was made by the French king to restore James to the throne, but it failed; and the deposed monarch, after spending ten years almost wholly in religious retirement among the Jesuits, died in the year 1701. His son was immediately proclaimed, by Louis, as king of Great Britain and Ireland; on which William, who had, for the last five years, been at peace with France, joined against that country, in the war which had lately broken out about the Spanish succession. This war was occasioned by the death of the king of Spain, who left no son to succeed him; and as there were two princes who preferred equal claims to the vacant throne, they went to war with each other, and were joined by almost all the states of Europe, each government taking that side which best suited its own interest. One of the rivals was Philip, a grandson of Louis the Fourteenth; the other was Charles, archduke of Austria. The former had been crowned in Spain, and was supported by his grandfather; while the archduke was assisted by the English, Dutch, Germans, and Italians. William the Third died just at the commencement of this war, and at his death, which happened in March, 1702, the crown devolved on the second daughter of King James, Anne, who was a Protestant, and was married to Prince George of Denmark. Queen Mary had died about seven years before her husband.

In the reign of William the Third, the Bank of England was first established; and the parliament, finding that the taxes were not sufficient to pay the expenses of the wars in which the new king had engaged the nation, encouraged people to lend money to the government, by promising to pay a large interest for it; and this was the beginning of what is called the National Debt, which has been increasing ever since.

By the liberality of King William and Queen Mary, the noble hospital of Greenwich was founded, as an asylum for disabled and aged sailors. For this benevolent purpose, they

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made a grant of the royal palace, at Greenwich, which had been a favourite residence of Queen Elizabeth, and had been partly rebuilt by Charles the Second. They also gave a large space of ground, adjoining; and after the death of the queen, who was the first projector of the plan, the king appointed commissioners to direct the re-building of the hospital, and granted a large sum towards it out of his revenue. His example was followed by his successors, and in the reign of George the Second, this great national institution was completed; and it is a pleasing sight to see so many brave veterans, who have spent the best part of their lives in defending their country, living in ease and comfort in their old age.

Among the great improvements of the age, was the more complete regulation of the Post-office, which had been put into good training in the time of the Commonwealth; so that at the period we are speaking of, letters were carried and delivered as readily, though not so quickly, as they are now. There was also a penny post established in London, by a private individual, of whom it was purchased by the government, and attached to the general post-office. Mention is made of stage-coaches, about this time; but I cannot exactly inform you when they were first used, nor upon what road they were first established.

QUEEN ANNE.

1702 to 1714.

QUEEN ANNE succeeded to the throne, in preference to her brother James, because she was a protestant; whereas James, who had been educated under the eye of his father, was a

Catholic; and it had now become a law in England, that none but a Protestant should inherit the throne, Anne was, apparently, a well-disposed, though not a very talented, woman; and her husband, Prince George of Denmark, had no share whatever in the government.

The attention of the country was, at that time, occupied with the War of Succession, which had been entered into by the late king, because he was jealous of the support given by Louis the Fourteenth to the deposed king, James the Second; but it was continued by Queen Anne, with a view to weaken France, and maintain the balance of power in Europe; otherwise it would appear absurd, as well as useless, that so much money should have been expended, and so many lives sacrificed; that the taxes should have been increased, and trade injured; for no better purpose than to settle the question, which of two princes should be king of a foreign country.

The duke of Marlborough was the great general of that age, and won many battles in Germany, among which those of Blenheim and Ramillies were the most famed, and were celebrated in London by illuminations, and other rejoicings; by which it would seem that the people were dazzled by the word "victory," without considering whether any real benefit had been obtained by it. All the colours and standards taken at Ramillies were put up in Guildhall, where many of them remained for a considerable time.

The victories in Germany failed, after all, in their object, that of placing the archduke Charles on the throne of Spain: but I have now to mention something of far more importance to this country than the wars in Germany, and that is, the Union of England and Scotland, which took place in the time of Queen Anne, when the two kingdoms became one, and received the name of Great Britain.

England and Scotland had, as we have already seen, been governed by one sovereign only, from the accession of James

the First; but they had still retained their separate laws, had each possessed its separate parliament, and were, in all respects, distinct from each other, except in the mere particular of acknowledging the same monarch. The government of England, however, considering that it would be for the interest of both countries, that they should be closely united, proposed that, in future, there should be but one parliament, that the Scots should send their own members to our House of Commons, and that certain of the peers of Scotland should be elected to sit in the English House of Lords. All the laws with regard to trade were to be the same in both countries; but, in other respects, the Scots were to retain many of their old laws, as being best adapted to their peculiar habits and manners; and they were to be left at liberty to regulate the government of their own church, which is still very different from that of the church of England.

The union was completed on the 1st of May, 1707; and from that time, to the present, the English and the Scots have been as one people. Still the Scots cherished an attachment to the memory of their former rulers, and have twice been concerned in rebellions, with the object of placing the Stuarts on the throne, as you will read hereafter.

The war on the continent lasted ten years; and, among the many miseries it produced, was the ruin of whole districts in Germany, where the inhabitants were reduced to the most destitute condition. About seven thousand of these wretched people, who had been driven from their homes on the borders of the Rhine, were brought over to England, from compassion to their sufferings; but when they arrived here, a difficulty arose in contriving means for their support.

Tents, however, were erected on Blackheath, for their temporary accommodation, and collections made for their relief; till, at length, it was proposed to send some of them to Ireland, and the rest to the American colonies. A great many were taken into private families as servants; and a sum of twenty-

four thousand pounds was granted by the English parliament, to support those who were sent to Ireland, till they could be settled in small farms, or be placed in a way for maintaining themselves. The rest of these unhappy exiles were sent to New York, and settled along the banks of the Hudson river; but not being well treated by the old settlers, they removed to Pennsylvania, where they were most kindly treated by the inhabitants of that state, who were all Quakers, and, having purchased their land of the Indians, had established a very flourishing and comfortable colony.

The American settlements, which are now the United States, were every year becoming more valuable to Great Britain; because, as their population increased, and grew more wealthy, they became very good customers for English manufactures, which were sent out in great quantities to them, and were sure to find ready markets: so that plenty of employment was created at home.

The American states were, at that time, occupied mostly by planters, who lived by selling the produce of their land, chiefly tobacco, from which they reaped abundant profits; but as they had no manufactories of any kind, they were obliged to buy of the English whatever they stood in need of, except food; you may, therefore, imagine what quantities of goods were constantly shipped from England for the use of the American settlers. Nor was this the only advantage derived from the possession of rich colonies in the New World; for as the Americans took such immense cargoes of British manufactures, the English were able to purchase large quantities of the produce of that country at a much cheaper rate than if they had been obliged to go to a foreign market for it; for instance, they required immense supplies of every material used in the building of ships, particularly tar and pitch, and pines, to make masts; and as long as they had to procure all these requisites from other countries, they often had to pay a very high price for them.

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There was a company of merchants, in Sweden, who had the sole right of selling tar. This is called a monopoly; which means a grant, to particular persons, of the privilege of trading in a certain article, which must not be sold by any one else; so that those who grow or manufacture such an article, must not dispose of it to whom they please, but must take it to this company of merchants, who buy it of them: consequently, all who wish to purchase any article which is so protected, must buy it of those to whom has been granted this exclusive right of sale, and who, alone possessing any stock of the article required, can demand whatever price they choose, however exorbitant.

You will, by this, see how very oppressive and injurious, to many people, a monopoly of any kind must be. This was the case with the pitch and tar used in ship-building; for the Swedes knew very well that the English could not build their ships without these commodities, therefore they charged the most enormous prices, to which the English were obliged to submit; until the British government offered bounties, that is, sums of money, as rewards for pitch, tar, hemp, and flax, produced in the American colonies. This encouragement, as was expected, induced many persons to engage in this species of commerce, and these commodities were very soon brought from America, which compelled the Swedes to lower their prices. But, although bounties are not monopolies, the effect of them is almost equally oppressive, since the taxes must be increased to raise money to pay them.

About this time, the Americans began to cultivate rice, which soon became a considerable article of trade. It is an Indian grain, and was introduced into America in the following curious manner. The captain of a vessel, from the island of Madagascar, happened to put in at a port of Carolina, and after conversing with one of the planters respecting the nature of the soil, and what was likely to thrive in it, gave him a little rice seed, which he had left in a bag, instructing him

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how to sow it, by way of experiment. He did so, and had a plentiful crop, on which others procured seed from him, and sowed it on their land; and rice has since been the chief source of the wealth and prosperity of Carolina, from whence it is exported, in vast quantities, to England and other countries. The gentlemen of the province subscribed together, to make a handsome present to the captain who had rendered them such a signal service.

The war relating to the Spanish succession, which had so long disturbed the tranquillity of Europe, was terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Among the many great men who lived in the time of Queen Anne, was the celebrated philosopher, Sir Isaac Newton, who made so many wonderful discoveries in optics and astronomy. There was no want of learning in this age, for poets and authors of every description were so numerous, that I cannot attempt to mention their names. The press was, however, under more restraint than it is now; and the famous Daniel Defoe, who wrote the history of Robinson Crusoe, with several others, was put in the pillory, for publishing satires on the queen or the government.

It was in the reign of Anne, that the government divided itself into two opposing factions, under the names of Whigs and Tories. The Tories were those who supported the powers of the crown, and the privileges of the established church; and the Whigs professed to increase the privileges, and secure the rights, of the people.

In this reign, was completed the new cathedral of St. Paul's, the old church having been destroyed by the fire of London. This magnificent structure was erected under the superintendence of the celebrated architect, Sir Christopher Wren, who received the honour of knighthood from Charles the Second, as a testimony of respect for his professional talents. The first stone of St. Paul's was laid in 1675, and the whole building was finished in thirty-five years, which

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was considered a short time for so great a work, as the building of St. Peter's, at Rome, the only edifice of the kind in the world to be compared with it for size and grandeur, (allowing for the interruption which occurred during its erection,) occupied a period of one hundred and forty years.

The population of London, and the extent of the city, had now so greatly increased, that it was considered expedient to erect fifty new churches, and Sir Christopher Wren was desired by the parliament to calculate the expense of such an undertaking, which was very considerable; nevertheless, new taxes were voted for the purpose, and the work was begun.

Queen Anne died in 1714, having reigned thirteen years. It was this princess who introduced into England the hideous fashion of wearing hoops under the dress, which were not only unsightly, but extremely inconvenient; yet this continued to be the court fashion long after it had been discontinued by ladies in general; and hoops were worn, on state occasions, until the accession of George the Fourth.

GEORGE THE FIRST.

1714 to 1727.

In the reign of William the Third, an act of parliament, called the Act of Settlement, had been passed, for the purpose of securing the succession of the crown of Great Britain to Protestant princes; in consequence of which, the brother of queen Anne, James Stuart, who is sometimes called the Pretender, and sometimes the Chevalier de St. George, could not reign in England, because he was a Catholic; therefore,

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George, duke of Brunswick and elector of Hanover, whose mother was a grand-daughter of James the First, became king of Great Britain, although he was by birth a German. At his accession, he was rather an elderly man, dull and heavy in his manners, and it is said, he never felt quite at ease in assuming the government of a country, where the people, their laws, institutions, and manners, were alike unknown to him. He was reserved towards his new subjects, and consequently, never became very popular; yet he was jealous of his station, and treated with severity all those who showed any signs of attachment to the exiled royal family of the Stuarts.

Though George the First was married, yet his wife was not crowned as queen, for she never visited England, and the fate of that unfortunate lady has excited much surprise and compassion, and did not tend to increase the good-will of the English towards their new monarch. The royal couple had never lived very happily together, and during the whole of his majesty's residence in England, his wife was confined in a gloomy castle, in Germany, where she ended her melancholy days.

George the First had not been long seated on the throne, when the Jacobites, a name given to those who were friendly to the dethroned family, of whom there were great numbers, both in England and Scotland, made an attempt to restore the Pretender, but it only ended in the ruin and misery of those who were engaged in it.

The rebellion began in Scotland, headed by the Earl of Mar, and several other Scottish nobles, who held a correspondence with the prince, and, in obedience to his directions, assembled their vassals in arms, and proclaimed him king of Scotland, by the title of James the Eighth.

No sooner had the standard of rebellion been raised, than the Highlanders poured down from the north, eager to engage in the cause of a prince who was a descendant of the royal

race of Scotland, and ten thousand men were soon collected who established their head quarters in the city of Perth.

The Highlanders were, even at this late period, an untutored, and almost barbarous, race of people. They are supposed to be the descendants of the ancient Picts, and make it a boast that they were never subjected by the Romans, but were able to preserve their independence, when almost all the rest of Europe was under the dominion of those great conquerors. From time immemorial, these wild mountaineers had dwelt among their native hills, in all the rude simplicity of their ancestors. They spoke the ancient language, preserved the ancient customs of their forefathers, were almost wholly unacquainted with the arts of civilized life, and divided into clans or tribes, each of which was headed by a chieftain, who possessed all the power of an absolute sovereign among his own people. They all bore his name, and were generally so devotedly attached to his person, that scarcely one of them would hesitate to sacrifice his life for his chief; and all obeyed his will in preference to any law on earth. As to the chiefs themselves, they had never acknowledged subjection, even to the kings of their own country, any further than in feeling bound to aid them in their wars.

Such were the people who now rallied around the standard of James Stuart, not only because they looked upon him as their countryman, but because all their prejudices were in favour of hereditary monarchy; and as no Highlander would think of disputing the right of a son to succeed his father as chief of a clan, so they regarded it as contrary to the laws of nature, that a stranger should come from a foreign land to take possession of the throne, while the heir of the ancient line of monarchs was in existence.

In the meantime, the Jacobites were forming secret associations in different parts of England, that they might be ready to join their partizans in the north, being in hopes that the Pretender would bring forces from France; but Louis the

Fourteenth, who was aged and infirm, was not willing to engage in any new wars, and his death happening at that crisis, put an end to all the expectations they had formed of receiving assistance from France, and greatly damped their ardour.

When King George the First heard of the rising in Scotland, he sent orders to the duke of Argyle, to march against the earl of Mar, with all the forces he could muster; and a battle was fought at Dumblane, in which neither party gained any decisive advantage; but on the very same day, the king's troops defeated the English friends of the Pretender, at Preston, in Lancashire, and made a great many prisoners, amongst whom were six Scottish peers, who were afterwards confined in the Tower of London.

The defeat of their English partizans, at Preston, disheartened the Scots, who had placed great dependence on them; and just at this unfavourable crisis, the Pretender, accompanied by only six gentlemen, landed at Peterhead, near Aberdeen, where he was received by his friends with all the respect due to a sovereign prince, notwithstanding their disappointment at his not bringing French troops with him.

From Aberdeen he proceeded to Perth, where the rebel army was still stationed, and there a day was fixed for his coronation; but before that day arrived, the approach of the duke of Argyle, with a much superior force, obliged him to retreat; and as he saw that there was not the least prospect of success, he disbanded his troops, and returned to France.

The prisoners taken at Preston were treated with the greatest severity; many of them were hanged with little trial or ceremony, and those whose lives were spared, were sent to the American plantations, where they had to work, like the slaves, for the rest of their lives. Three of the six noblemen who were confined in the Tower, were condemned to death; nor would the king listen to any supplications for mercy in their behalf. Two of them, the earl of Derwent-

water and Viscount Kenmuir, were beheaded on Tower-hill; but the third, Lord Nithisdale, made his escape in female attire, which his wife had conveyed adroitly into his prison. Such was the end of this rebellion, which, if it had been successful, would most likely have involved the country in new misfortunes, by the restoration of a family so ill calculated to govern the English nation.

Although the rebellion was entirely crushed, there were frequent disturbances in different places, but more particularly in London, where numbers of the Pretender's partizans used to meet at clubs, to drink his health; and when surprised by the constables, they would rush out into the streets, armed with sticks and staves, and create serious disturbances; for which many were fined, imprisoned, transported, or otherwise punished.

The extent of London was, by this time, very much increased by the progress of building at the west end of the town; and in proportion as the metropolis grew larger and more populous, so did the trading and manufacturing towns in every part of the country. Manchester was already famous for its cotton factories, Birmingham for its hardware, and many of the country towns were busy and populous, and full of shops.

In the year 1719, a wonderful improvement was made in the manufacture of silk, in England, by the introduction of machinery from Italy, for throwing the silk; that is, for twisting several threads of raw silk together, to prepare it for the weaver. The silk, thus twisted, is called organzine, and before the English were acquainted with this mode of preparing it, organzine, or thrown silk, was all brought from Italy. An English gentleman, named Lombe, thinking it would be advantageous to himself, as well as a saving to the English manufacturers, if silk could be organzined in England, assumed the dress of a common workman, and was employed, for some time, in the silk mills in Piedmont, where he made

himself acquainted with the construction of the machinery, and made drawings of every part of it, which he took to England, and erected a silk mill, at Derby, on the same principles, by which he realized a good income; but he did not make the great fortune he had expected. The parliament afterwards granted fourteen thousand pounds to the heir of this gentleman, for the service he had rendered to the country, by the introduction of a new branch of manufacture.

The iron works in England were, at this period, so extensive, that it is reckoned there were above twenty thousand people engaged in them, in the counties of Warwick, Gloucester, Stafford, Monmouth, Worcester, and Salop; and in those counties, so many of the woods had been destroyed for fuel for the furnaces, that some fears were entertained, that oak for ship building would become scarce; but new plantations of this valuable tree were formed, and a great deal has also been brought from other countries, particularly from Canada, where it is abundant.

Some of the most severe laws against the Dissenters, were repealed in the reign of George the First, but others remained in force against them, so that it could not yet be said that the same universal toleration was allowed in religion which is happily granted in the present day.

In the early part of this reign, a change was made with respect to the duration of parliaments, which, from the passing of a law in the reign of William the Third, had been re-elected every three years. The law which regulated these frequent elections, was called the Triennial Act, and was considered a very wise provision, by the majority of the people, who thought, that if the members of parliament were liable to be displaced at the end of three years, they would be more careful to do what was best for the towns and counties which they represented; since, if disposed to be corrupt, or to neglect the interest of their constituents, their continuance in parliament would be much abridged, and others, instead of

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them, might be chosen at a short interval. The members, themselves, of course, preferred being elected for a longer time, and when the nation was alarmed at the prospect of a civil war, the ministers had influence enough to get the Triennial Act abolished, and a law made, in its place, by which members of parliament were to be elected for seven years, instead of three, on a belief that frequent elections would afford the Jacobites an opportunity of getting into power. This new law, called the Septennial Act, has continued in force ever since.

There were no foreign wars, of any consequence, as far as England was concerned, in the reign of George the First; but there were two great sovereigns in Europe, whose quarrels created as much disturbance as those of Francis the First and the emperor Charles the Fifth, in the reign of Henry the Eighth. These two warlike princes were Charles the Twelfth, of Sweden, and Peter the Great, of Russia; the former celebrated as a warrior, the latter as the true founder of a great empire, since it was he who introduced the arts and civilization among the Russians; a people, whose rude habits, and uncultivated minds, had hitherto caused them to be looked upon as barbarians, by the more enlightened nations of Europe.

George the First died at Osnaburg, in Germany, on a visit to his continental dominions, in 1727, having reigned in England thirteen years.

GEORGE THE SECOND.

1727 to 1760.

GEORGE THE SECOND, the son of the late king, was also a German prince, and was forty-five years of age when he

ascended the throne of Great Britain. The first years of his reign were passed in peace; and the country, in consequence, enjoyed a high degree of prosperity, by a constantly increasing trade with foreign nations, particularly with different parts of America; and it was this traffic that led to a war with Spain, which lasted from the year 1739 to 1748.

The Spaniards had certain settlements in America, to which they alone had the right of trading, and they employed vessels called guarda costas, or coast guards, to watch that ships belonging to any other nation might not convey any goods to or from these settlements. Instead of confining themselves to the duty assigned them, the Spanish captains of the guarda costa frequently interfered with British merchants, who were on their way to other American colonies, and, under pretence of searching for contraband goods, the Spaniards boarded their ships, treated the sailors with the greatest barbarity, and sometimes seized the vessel altogether, and sold the crew for slaves. As it was impossible to bear tamely such injuries as these, the king of England declared war against Spain, where Philip the Fifth was then reigning; this war lasted nine years, during which, I am sorry to say, a great number of poor sailors were impressed into the service.

The practice of impressing sailors, was a custom which seems to have existed for many ages, although the origin of it is not exactly known, nor is it, I believe, expressly sanctioned by the laws of the country. It was managed thus: Whenever an extra number of sailors were wanted, parties of armed men, called press-gangs, were sent about the country, and particularly about the sea-port towns, to seek for strong, healthy men, whose appearance indicated that they were likely to make good sailors; and when such were met with, they were seized, and carried on board the ships of war, by force, and obliged to go to sea, and serve in the wars, however great their dislike to such a mode of life, or however distressing their absence might be to their families.

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The cruelty and injustice of this practice is obvious; and those who condemn Bonaparte for raising his armies by conscription, will find, on reflection, that there is very little difference between the conscript laws in France, and the impressment of seamen in England, where many a man has been stopped in going to his daily labour, and forcibly dragged away, to be sent to some distant part of the world, while his wife and family were left in ignorance of his fate, and perhaps without the means of subsistence.

About three years after the war with Spain had begun, quarrels arose between England and France, from two causes, which it will be necessary to explain. The first was, that Louis the Fifteenth was encouraging the Pretender to make further attempts for the recovery of the British crown. The second arose in consequence of a dispute respecting the empire of Germany, in which Louis took one side of the question, and king George the other. The following particulars will account for this difference: The late emperor of Germany, Charles the Sixth, had made a will, called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which his daughter, Maria Theresa, was to be his successor; but as he thought it likely that a will in favour of a female might be disputed after his death, he took the precaution of obtaining a promise from most of the powerful sovereigns of Europe, that they would acknowledge Maria Theresa as empress of Germany, and support her against any one who might dispute her title to the imperial throne.

No sooner, however, was the emperor dead, than Louis the Fifteenth assisted the elector of Bavaria to usurp the throne, which occasioned a civil war in Germany; and the king of England, who supported the cause of the empress Maria Theresa, was necessarily involved in hostilities with the king of France.

Perhaps you may think that George the Second, like the knights errant of old, was animated by the desire of assisting a female in distress; but the days of chivalry had long passed

by, and it is more likely that our worthy monarch, who was elector of Hanover, thought more about protecting his own German territories against the elector of Bavaria, than of fighting for the rights of the injured princess.

The king, and his son, the duke of Cumberland, both fought in person at the battle of Dettingen, which took place during this warfare; but no English sovereign has since headed his own armies. In the midst of this war, the duke of Cumberland was recalled, in consequence of a second and more formidable rebellion, which had burst forth in Scotland, in support of the cause of the exiled Stuarts.

It was now nearly thirty years since the Chevalier de St George had stirred up that fatal commotion which cost so many lives, and ended in his own defeat. Since that time, he had lived in Italy, had married a grand-daughter of John Sobieski, king of Poland, and had one son, Charles Edward, who was now a young man, about twenty-five years of age.

While the king of England was engaged in the German war, the young Pretender, as Charles Stuart was usually styled, having received great encouragement from Louis of France, embarked for Scotland, and landed in the Hebrides, with a few Irish and Scottish gentlemen, who were ready to devote their lives to his service.

We must here make a distinction between those generous friends who were really attached to the exiled princes of the House of Stuart, and were equally willing to aid in restoring them to the throne of their ancestors, or to follow them in their heaviest misfortunes, and those discontented Jacobites, who, merely from a spirit of opposition to the existing government, would join in any scheme to overturn it.

On its being known that the prince had landed in Scotland, he was joined by the Highland chieftains, and speedily found himself at the head of some thousands of mountaineers, who were delighted with his affable manners, graceful person, and adoption of the Highland costume. The king was still in

Germany, but as soon as the news reached him, he sent the duke of Cumberland to England, to take measures for suppressing the rebellion.

In the mean time, Charles Edward had taken possession of Holyrood-house, at Edinburgh, the ancient palace of his forefathers, where he held a kind of court, and proclaimed his father king of Great Britain, and himself regent of the kingdom, treating those who surrounded him as his subjects, while they rendered to him the homage due to a king.

Having gained a complete victory over the king's troops, at Preston Pans, near Edinburgh, the rebels, elated with success, entered England, and proceeded as far as Derby, without encountering any opposition. Here, however, they learned that the duke of Cumberland had arrived from Germany, and was making active preparations to oppose them with an overwhelming force, therefore they would not venture nearer London, and on hearing that the royalists were advancing northward, they thought it prudent to retreat into Scotland. I have not room to tell you of the terror and confusion caused throughout England, by the invasion of the Pretender, nor the misery into which many families were plunged, in consequence of their sons or brothers being foolish enough to enter the rebel army, thus subjecting themselves to the dreadful punishment awarded to traitors.

On the 16th of April, 1746, a decisive battle was fought at Culloden, an extensive moor, near Inverness, in which the Scottish forces were totally defeated, and the unfortunate prince was obliged to save himself by fleeing from the field, and concealing himself as he best could. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for the apprehension of the fugitive, who wandered about in various disguises; but although he discovered himself at different times, to above fifty persons, most of whom were poor peasants, not one was base enough to betray him, even for so large a reward; a circumstance that reflects much honour on the Scots.

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One instance, which I am about to relate, will serve to show you how sincere and devoted was the attachment of the prince's adherents. A party of royalists having some suspicion that he was concealed in a small hut, surrounded it, and forced an entrance; but finding several persons within, and not knowing which was the object of their search, he escaped in the confusion, and fled to the mountains, while the soldiers, after a hard fight, made all the rest prisoners, except one young man, named Mackenzie, who also effected his escape from the hut. The soldiers soon discovered that they had missed their prize, and setting off in pursuit of him, overtook Mackenzie, who was about the same age as the prince, and very much like him in person; so that they did not doubt that he was the royal fugitive, and endeavoured to make him prisoner.

Mackenzie, perceiving their mistake, and resolving to sacrifice his life rather than suffer them to be undeceived, rushed on them with his broad sword, and fought valiantly, till he fell covered with many wounds, exclaiming, "Traitors, you have killed your prince!" The soldiers, of course, abandoned all further pursuit, and thus the noble conduct of this generous young Highlander gave the Pretender time to reach a place of safety; and whilst it was still believed among the royalists that he was dead, he found an opportunity of embarking for France.

A great many persons of high birth were seized, and some of them were executed for the part they had taken in this rebellion, while numbers of unfortunate men of inferior rank, many of whom no doubt had been misled by their superiors, were transported for life, as slaves, to the colonies of America. Thus ended the famous rebellion of 1745.

Some time afterwards, peace was restored to Europe by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which put an end to the war in Germany, and restored the empress Maria Theresa to her throne. The French, English, and Spaniards, were recon-

ciled; and the prince Charles Edward, according to the terms of peace between the French and English, was banished from France, and spent the rest of his life in Italy.

About this time was laid the foundation of the British empire in India, the establishment of which was owing, in a great measure, to the services of a brave officer, named Clive, who, after passing through all the gradations of military rank, was made a peer, and governor-general of India. The English East India Company, though originally but a society of merchants, had, in consequence of being obliged to maintain troops for the protection of their settlements, and by frequent contests and alliances with the native princes, become a warlike, as well as a commercial commonwealth; and had obtained so great an influence over the affairs of India, that many of the petty sovereigns of the country had become dependent on the English governors for the maintenance of their possessions and dignities; while the directors of the company might be considered equal, in power, wealth, and territory, to any of the Eastern princes. Disputes, however, sometimes arose, and captain Clive distinguished himself in two or three expeditions into different provinces. At length, the town of Calcutta, one of the principal British settlements, was attacked and taken by Suraja Dowla, the Nabob of Bengal, a misfortune that was aggravated by the dreadful fate of the English prisoners, consisting of merchants, officers, and soldiers, to the number of one hundred and forty-six, who were crowded into a small prison-room, called the Black Hole; where, dreadful to relate, all but twenty-three of them were suffocated before the morning, and most of the few survivers died afterwards of fevers, brought on by the sufferings they had undergone during that fatal night.

This sad event happened May 19th, 1756. The following year, captain Clive, who had been promoted to the rank of colonel, with about three thousand men, obtained a signal victory over the Nabob Suraja Dowla, whose forces amounted

to seventy thousand; and this battle, which was fought on the plain of Plassey, ensured the restoration and safety of the British power in India. The gallant officer had previously re-taken Calcutta, and also the great trading city of Hooghli. In reward for his services, as before observed, he was raised to the peerage; and, some years afterwards, he was appointed governor-general of India, a rank only inferior to that of sovereign, in which station he is said, (like other Indian rulers,) to have been chargeable with cruelty and oppression.

And now that we have traced the success of the British arms in Europe and Asia, it is time to say something of an important conquest achieved in America towards the close of this reign.

About seven years after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, a war broke out between the French and English in America, respecting the boundaries of their several possessions in that country. The vast territory of Canada belonged to France, and, with its chief towns, was peopled by French subjects, and garrisoned by French soldiers, who frequently tried to make encroachments on those English settlements which are now called the United States of America. The French government also refused to give up four of the West India islands, although this was part of the agreement made at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Troops were sent out both by France and England to carry on the war, which lasted till the end of the reign of George the Second, when general Wolfe, a brave Englishman, gained a complete victory over the French, at the battle of Quebec; and the whole of Canada was surrendered to the English, and has ever since formed a part of the British dominions.

During this war, some Indian kings, or chiefs, were brought to London to tender their submission to the king of England. They belonged to a tribe called the Cherokees, who were in alliance with the English, and were highly delighted with the novelty of the scenes they witnessed in

this country. They remained here a few months, and then returned, laden with handsome presents, to their native woods, to astonish the Indians with an account of the many wonders they had seen.

The news of the conquest of Canada, arrived in England only a few days before the death of George the Second; but the joy it would otherwise have occasioned, was clouded by the news of the death of general Wolfe, who was killed in the battle, at the very moment of victory.

The French inhabitants of Canada were well treated after the conquest. They were not deprived of any property, but were allowed either to sell their land and leave the country, or to remain as English subjects; and most of them chose the latter alternative.

At the first court held by George the Third, after his accession, the Chevalier St. Lery, a French Canadian, and his lady, were presented to their new monarch, who received them with great politeness, saying to Madame St. Lery, who was remarkably beautiful, "Madam, if all the ladies of Canada are as handsome as yourself, I shall indeed be proud of my conquest."

Canada is of importance, on account of its fur and timber trade, as well as for its large tracts of land which are capable of cultivation. A great many English families have gone thither to reside; and, in fact, the English residents have now become as numerous as the French.

While conquests were thus being made abroad, various improvements were going on at home; new institutions were being formed, new buildings erected, and all the arts and sciences were making rapid progress. About this time, turnpikes were established; the roads throughout the kingdom were put in a much better condition than they had hitherto been, and the art of making canals was beginning to be practised. The British Museum was founded in this reign; Westminster bridge was completed; and several fine streets

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built, by which the city of Westminster was greatly improved; and instead of being separated from London, as formerly, by fields and roads, it was now united to it. Some of the old city gates were removed, the streets were widened, and the present Mansion-house was built for the lord mayor.

Music was becoming a fashionable study, under the auspices of the great Handel, who resided fifty years in this country; and the Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, was instituted by several noblemen and gentlemen, who were desirous of promoting the useful arts, and rewarding genius. They gave prizes for any new manufacture or mechanical invention, and also rewarded the planters of America, who succeeded in raising on their plantations any of the rich productions of the East, or of the warmer climates of the American continent. In like manner, they presented medals to young artists, whose drawings showed signs of talent and industry.

It was about this period, that the barbers and surgeons were separated into two distinct corporations; and a new act was passed to prevent clandestine marriages. Before this act, people might be married at any time, and at any place, without a license, or banns, or the consent of parents; and young people, in consequence, often formed very imprudent connections. The parliament, therefore, wisely made a law prohibiting all such marriages; and the beneficial effects of this judicious act were soon felt and acknowledged.

George the Second died at Kensington-palace, on the 25th of October, 1760, in the twenty-third year of his reign. His queen, the amiable and accomplished Caroline of Brandenburgh, had been dead many years, and he had never formed another matrimonial engagement.

One of the most remarkable circumstances that occurred in this country during the reign of George the Second, was the introduction of the New Style, which will require some explanation. The New Style means an alteration that was

made in the calendar, by act of parliament, in the year 1752, by which the days were put back, as you would put back a clock that had gone too fast. That you may understand why this change was necessary, we must advert to the time of Julius Cæsar, who, as you may know, was a man of great talent, and wrote many clever books, besides studying a variety of sciences, including that of astronomy, in which he became sufficiently learned to correct some errors of the early astronomers.

Most of the ancient nations had different methods of reckoning the duration of the year; some counting by the moons or months; but none of them had discovered the exact length of time which the earth takes to perform its annual revolution round the sun, which is now ascertained to be nearly 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes, consequently, that must be the real length of the year; because the earth then returns to the point from which it started, and begins a fresh circuit.

The calculations made by Julius Cæsar came nearer to the truth than any that had been made before, still they were not quite exact; for in his new regulations respecting the duration of the year, he made it to consist of three hundred and sixty-five days and six hours, which was eleven minutes too much; and this is called the Julian year. Now, if we consider that about eighteen hundred years had elapsed since the time of Julius Cæsar, and that each of those years had commenced eleven minutes later than the preceding one, we shall easily perceive that we must have gained many days; or, as we should say of a watch, we were too fast; meaning thereby, that we were too fast by the number of days which the difference of minutes amounted to in so many years. The error had been rectified in Italy, as early as the sixteenth century, when Pope Gregory the Thirteenth ordered the dates to be altered in all countries under his jurisdiction, and made regulations to avoid falling into error in future.

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The English, however, continued to reckon in the old style, till the reign of George the Second, when an act was passed that brought the dates of England to correspond with those in other countries. The difference at this time amounted to eleven days, therefore, it was ordered that the year, which, till then, had always commenced on the twenty-fifth of March, should, in future, begin on the first of January; and that the day after the second of January, 1752, should be called the thirteenth, instead of the third, thus omitting ten entire days; and this is the reason why we sometimes hear of old Christmas-day, and new Christmas-day, &c. and as the six hours beyond three hundred and sixty-five days, amounts to one whole day in the space of four years, this odd day is added to February, making that month to consist of twenty-nine, instead of twenty-eight, days, every fourth year, which is called Leap-year. But the six additional hours in every year, being too much by eleven minutes, the leap-year is omitted every hundredth year; and thus the accuracy of the New Style is preserved. In Russia, they still continue to reckon by the old method.

GEORGE THE THIRD;

1760 to 1820.

This prince, who was the grandson of George the Second, was a good man, rather than a man of brilliant talents; he made it his boast that he was a Briton, and had been educated in the land of his birth; and his manners being affable and conciliating, unlike those of his German predecessors, he soon

became extremely popular. In the year following that of his accession, he married Charlotte, princess of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, and they were crowned together with great magnificence. This royal couple, notwithstanding the cares of government, passed a great part of their lives together, amid all the blessings of domestic happiness, and highly respected by their subjects.

The conquest of Canada had not put an end to the war with France, which continued to be carried on with frightful slaughter, and excessive expenses, on both sides; the French king being assisted by the king of Spain, Charles the Third, who was bound to give him aid, in consequence of an agreement entered into by the sovereigns of the house of Bourbon, to assist each other against all the rest of the world, and this agreement was called the "Family Compact."

The arms of the English, however, were successful over those of their enemies. They took several of the West India islands from the French; and conquered, from the Spaniards, some of their possessions in the East Indies; so that it is not surprising that both these nations should be anxious for peace; and as the English people were also quite tired of the enormous expenses with which even their victories were attended, a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris in 1763, which terminated what is called the "Seven Years' war."

The tranquillity that followed was but of short duration, for the English parliament had now to consider how they were to pay the debts which had been contracted during the war; and in consulting together upon the best means of raising money for that purpose, it was considered by the minister that the American colonies ought to contribute their part, as they were now growing rich, and were as much the subjects of the king of Great Britain as though they had been living in England; but with this essential difference, they were totally unrepresented in the English parliament.

You may remember that the American states were, origi-

nally, founded by English emigrants, who quitted their native country during those troubled times when people were exposed to so much suffering on account of their religious opinions. Still they were British subjects, and as each new settlement was established, the sovereign of Great Britain granted a charter to the settlers, giving them certain rights and privileges, by which they were enabled, at their own expense, to defend and improve the States they had formed.

The chief population of these States, at the period of which we are now speaking, consisted of the descendants of the first English settlers, so that, being Americans both by birth and education, they could not be expected to have the same feelings towards England as their ancestors, whose native country it was. They were, likewise, in a very different position from the early colonists, who had come to a wild uncultivated land, where they found none of the comforts, and not many of the necessaries, of life. Men so situated were naturally glad to look for protection to a rich and powerful country, like England; but their American descendants had created a rich and powerful country of their own; they had productive lands, fine well-built towns, an extensive commerce, and had now established manufactories of various kinds, therefore they had no occasion to depend on any other nation, since they were able to supply their own wants, and to protect themselves.

It was natural, therefore, that they should resist what they considered to be a serious oppression; consequently, as soon as it became known that the British government intended to impose taxes on the States of America, to defray the expenses of wars in which the Americans had no share, they were highly dissatisfied. This was the original cause of the famous war of independence between England and the United States, which, from the passing of the Stamp Act, to the Peace of Paris, lasted eighteen years, though the period of actual hostilities was only about eight years. It ended in the total

separation of these large and valuable colonies from this country; since which time, America has been an independent nation.

But let us return to the commencement of the war. The first tax levied on the Americans was a stamp duty; which means, that all receipts for money, and deeds of various kinds, should be written on stamped paper; and, as you are probably aware, all the money raised for stamps is paid to the sovereign, or rather to the government.

This duty was followed by taxes on glass, paper, tea, and cider; which caused such discontent throughout the colonies, that the people declared they would not use any article on which a duty was laid. Mobs assembled, who committed violent outrages; burnt a quantity of stamped paper which had been sent from England; and, on one occasion, a party of men, disguised as Indians, went on board some East India ships, that were laden with taxed tea, and emptied the tea chests into the water.

The English soldiers, stationed at Boston, were commanded to suppress these riots, but they only increased the disorder; and more troops being sent over, to force the Americans to submission, that terrible war began, which, from its peculiar circumstances, may be termed a civil war.

Among the American patriots who were desirous of establishing the freedom of their country, were General Washington and the celebrated Dr. Franklin; but as the events of this troubled period belong to the history of America rather than to that of England, I shall enter no further into them here, as I think I have said enough to make you understand how, and why, the United States were separated from Great Britain.

In the mean time, there were great disputes in the English parliament, as to whether it would be better to put an end to the war, by freeing the Americans from their dependence, or not. The king was very unwilling to resign so large a

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portion of his dominions, and some of his ministers were of the same way of thinking; while others were of opinion that the Americans were only demanding that which was their natural right. It was this difference of opinion that caused the war to last so long; but, at length, the British government gave up the contest, in 1783, by acknowledging the independence of America, which has ever since been a free republic, governed by a president, who is chosen every four years.

The most celebrated engagements in which the English were victorious, during this unhappy war, were the battle of Bunker's hill; the storming of Quebec, which cost the life of the gallant general Montgomery, who commanded the American forces; and the battle of the Brandywine river, in which the Americans, under Washington, were signally defeated by Sir William Howe and Lord Cornwallis, September, 1777. In the first of these engagements, though the Americans were driven from their entrenchments on Bunker's hill, yet the British suffered so severely, that the Americans have ever claimed the victory.

In this contest, so disastrous to the mother country, two British armies were obliged to surrender to the enemy as prisoners of war. General Burgoyne, who had advanced from Canada, with seven thousand men, into the State of New York, in 1777, was so hemmed in at Saratoga, and distressed by want of supplies of provision and ammunition, that he was under the necessity of entering into a capitulation with the American general, Gates. In 1781, another army of the English, under Lord Cornwallis, was attacked at York town, by the combined forces of France and America, and, after a gallant defence, forced to submit to the mortification of becoming, in like manner, prisoners of war. It is a rather curious fact, that the American officer, General Lincoln, to whom they surrendered, had, eighteen months before, been compelled to make terms with Lord Cornwallis, at Charlestown.

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While the English were thus fighting to maintain their settlements in America, they were also carrying on a war in the East Indies, to protect the settlements of the East India Company from the invasion of Hyder Ally, one of the native princes. This hero was a soldier of fortune, who had risen from an ordinary station, to the rank of a mighty sovereign, and, for many years, kept the English settlements in a continual state of alarm; but he was defeated in several actions, and, dying about a year before peace was concluded with America, left his dominions to his son, Tippoo Saib, who carried on the war ten years longer, to the great detriment of the commerce and agriculture of the country.

At length, the Sultan Tippoo, finding he was losing ground, was glad to listen to proposals of peace, and a treaty was signed by himself and Lord Cornwallis, by which he agreed to surrender half his dominions to the English, to pay a very large sum of money, and to deliver his two sons into their hands, as hostages for the performance of the treaty.

A few years afterwards, the East India Company attempted to encroach still further on the territories of the sultan, on which he entered into an alliance with the new French republic, for it was during the time of the French Revolution. In May, 1799, his capital, Seringapatam, being stormed, he bravely contested every inch of ground, to the very interior of his palace, where he fell, covered with wounds; and, by his death, the English gained a vast addition of territory in the East Indies, which they have been increasing ever since.

A society was established at Calcutta, in 1784, called the Asiatic Society, for the purpose of making researches into the history, antiquities, arts, and sciences, of Hindostan; and the members of this society have made a great many interesting discoveries on these subjects, and have collected information tending to prove that the native Indians, whom we look upon as barbarians, were once a learned, but superstitious, race.

The first part of the reign of George the Third is remark-

able for mechanical inventions, and the great improvements that were made in various manufactures, as well as in the establishment of several new ones. For the greatest of these improvements, we are chiefly indebted to the wonderful powers of the steam-engine, the invention of which would, of itself, form a memorable era in the history of any nation.

The cotton factories were very much extended, in consequence of new machinery introduced by a Mr. Arkwright, afterwards Sir Richard Arkwright, a title of which he might justly be proud, since it was bestowed on him as a reward for the service he had rendered to his country, by improving one of its most important and useful manufactures. The family of this gentleman are now among the most opulent people in the county of Derby.

In consequence of Arkwright's improvements, the ladies of England have been able to get handsome printed cottons and muslins, manufactured in their own country, instead of purchasing those brought from India, which were far more expensive. Cotton stockings, which used to be too dear for any but the wealthy to wear, became so cheap by the help of new machinery, that they were brought within the reach of all classes.

About the same period, the manufacture of plate-glass was begun in Lancashire. Until then, all the plate-glass used in England, had been brought from France, none but the common sort being made in England; but after the manufactory was established at Ravenhead, the English very soon rivalled the French in that beautiful production.

But of all the manufactures introduced into England about this time, that of china was among the most elegant, as well as the most useful: and as it now forms a principal article of British commerce, a brief account of its rise and progress may be interesting to the reader. China ware was first brought into Europe, from the countries of China and Japan, by the Portuguese, after they had discovered a passage to

India by the Cape of Good Hope, and they gave it the name of porcelain, from the Portuguese word "porcella," which means, a cup. The beauty of this article soon caused it to be in great request, notwithstanding its high price, and excited the emulation of the Europeans to produce something similar; but they met with little success, till, in the early part of the eighteenth century, a French Jesuit, during his residence in China, found means to make himself acquainted with the whole process of its manufacture, an account of which he secretly transmitted to his own country. In the time of Louis the Fifteenth, a manufacture of this ware was established at Sévres, near Paris, by the influence of a lady, called Madame de Pompadour, which was carried on at the expense of the French government, and the Sévres China was long the finest in Europe.

But let us now see the progress of this art in England It is certain that the Romans had potteries for the manufacture of earthenware of different kinds, as is evidenced in their mosaic pavements, funeral urns, wine jars, and domestic utensils, specimens of which may be seen at the present day, in the highest state of preservation: They must have carried this art with them into Britain; but their skill in the manufacture of earthen-ware will not bear a comparison with that of the Chinese, or even of the modern Europeans.

A coarse kind of ware had been made in Staffordshire for ages, and appears to have been almost the only sort manufactured in England till the commencement of the eighteenth century; when a bed of very fine red earth was discovered, from which was produced a fine red porcelain, in imitation of oriental china, by two brothers, who came from Holland, and settled in Staffordshire.

Pipe clay from Devonshire, and flint from Kent, were now carried to the Potteries, where they were made into a white ware, like that of our common kitchen basins; and white plates and dishes soon superseded the pewter plates and

wooden platters, which had, till then, been in use among those who were not rich enough to have foreign china.

Nothing better than this white ware had been made in England till the year 1763, when a gentleman, named Wedgewood, invented a new kind of cream-coloured ware, which was so much admired, that it not only became fashionable in England, but was exported, in large quantities, to other countries. Mr. Wedgewood then devoted himself to the study of this branch of art, built new factories, produced china of still finer quality, and engaged artists of taste and skill to ornament it with various designs. This gentleman, by his talents and industry, realized a considerable fortune, and purchased a fine estate in Staffordshire, where he built a village for his workpeople, and continued to superintend the works till his death, which happened in 1795.

From that time, the manufacture of British china has rapidly improved; from fifteen to twenty thousand persons are employed in the potteries, and a much greater number in digging coals for them. Flint, of which they use a great quantity, was obtained from Kent; and the goods, when finished, are partly disposed of in our own country, and partly conveyed to the sea-ports, to be shipped for almost every part of the world.

The north part of Staffordshire is now covered with manufactories, and the china made at Worcester is equal to that of Sévres. Thus you see that even the clay and flint stones that we tread under our feet, are, by the ingenuity of man, capable of being converted into articles of luxury and beauty.

The reign of George the Third is also illustrious for the great number of literary characters who adorned the age, and for the advancement of geographical and nautical science, the knowledge of which was greatly extended by the discoveries of Captain Cook, who made three voyages round the world; but was, at length, unfortunately killed in a skirmish with the natives of Owhyhee, one of the Sandwich Islands.

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You may still hear very old people talk of the riots of '80 meaning, of the year 1780. A short account of those fatal disturbances may be properly introduced in this place. In the reign of William the Third, very severe laws had been made against the Catholics, by which they were rendered incapable of holding landed property, and were subjected to many other restrictions, which, in the more liberal and enlightened age of George the Third, were considered arbitrary and unjust; therefore, an act was passed to relieve them from these oppressive laws; on which, a number of misguided, ignorant men, fancied the established religion of the country would be endangered, and Catholicism restored; and this erroneous idea caused great mobs to assemble in the streets, crying out, "No Popery!" "No Popery!" These misguided people insulted the members of parliament, as they were going to the house, attempted to drag the king from his carriage, as he was riding through the park; set fire to Newgate, and other prisons, as well as to the Catholic chapels, and dwelling-houses of Catholic families; so that the whole city was in danger of being destroyed by the flames that were blazing in various directions.

This tumult lasted eight days, when the rioters were brought to order by the soldiers, who had been compelled to fire upon them; and performed their duty with such fatal effect, that more than five hundred persons were killed or wounded in the streets, before tranquillity was restored.

The lower orders of the people, however, were now becoming gradually more enlightened, by the establishment of those excellent national schools, where the children of the poor are taught reading and writing free of expense. Before the establishment of these, and Sunday schools, education, even among respectable tradespeople, was very limited, many shopkeepers being unable to write or spell, and it was quite an uncommon thing to find one among the labouring classes who knew how to read; you may judge, therefore, how much

has been done in the shape of instruction, for the benefit of the working classes, and how greatly the system of education has improved generally, within the last fifty years.

While England was thus in the full enjoyment of peace and prosperity, an event was occurring in a neighbouring nation, that again involved this kingdom in a long and expensive war. I mean the French Revolution.

The causes of this great change in the government of France were very similar to those which, in England, had cost the life of Charles the First, and placed Oliver Cromwell at the head of the state. The despotism exercised by the reigning family had, in both cases, occasioned the overthrow of the monarchy, and Louis the Sixteenth was, like Charles the First, brought to trial, and condemned to death by his subjects, who established a republican form of government. Immediately after the execution of King Louis, the government of this country broke off all friendly correspondence with the French republic, having recalled the English ambassador, Lord Gower; on which the French declared war against Great Britain, and were joined by the Spaniards and Dutch, who had found it advisable to enter into an alliance with the new government of France. In the course of this war, the British navy gained several great victories; Admiral Lord Howe defeated the French fleet; and Admiral Duncan gained the celebrated battle of Camperdown, fought with the Dutch, and generally spoken of as Duncan's victory. But the chief victory of this period was that of the Nile, gained on the first of August, 1798, over the French fleet, in the bay of Aboukir, by Admiral Nelson.

It was about this time, that a very important event took place in the history of our country, namely, the union of Great Britain and Ireland; for although the latter, ever since the time of Henry the Second, had been dependent on the English crown, it had always been governed by a separate parliament, and the Irish were continually watching for an

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opportunity of recovering their independence, which gave rise to frequent rebellions. In consequence of a formidable insurrection in 1798, the English government adopted measures for uniting Ireland to England, in the same manner that the union had been effected with Scotland. The Irish parliament was consequently abolished; and, in its stead, one hundred Protestant members for Ireland were allowed to sit in the English House of Commons, and twenty-eight Irish peers in the House of Lords. The union of the two countries took place on the first of January, 1801, but was further consolidated in 1829, when the Catholic Emancipation Bill passed both houses of parliament, and was assented to by George the Fourth.

As this bill was a law by which the Catholics were admitted to the same rights as Protestants, it was of great importance to the Irish nobles and gentry, who were mostly Catholics, and, in consequence of this act, were privileged to sit in parliament, indifferently, with the Irish Protestant members, which, till then, they were not allowed to do; so that many of the present representatives of Ireland are of the Catholic persuasion.

During the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century, the grand subject of public interest was the war with France, where Bonaparte had raised himself to the head of the government. This war, which was carried on by sea, as well as by land, cost the nation many millions of money, as well as the lives of more than a million of our countrymen, and deprived us of some of our best military and naval commanders, amongst whom were General Abercrombie and Admiral Lord Nelson; the former killed in the battle of Alexandria, the latter in that of Trafalgar.

The French fleet had taken possession of Alexandria, which, as you may know, is the grand sea-port town of Egypt; and, notwithstanding the check they had received from Nelson, at the battle of the Nile, they still kept their

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position, and were the more anxious to retain it, because Bonaparte reckoned upon it as one step towards the conquest of India. It was with a view of driving the French from Egypt, that an English army was sent out, under the command of General Abercrombie, who defeated the French, but lost his life in the action.

Soon after the defeat of the French, at Alexandria, the English ministers considered that it would be much better for the country to be at peace, and Bonaparte appearing to desire a reconciliation, the affair was arranged, and a treaty signed, which is known by the name of the peace of Amiens; but it was not long before the quarrel was renewed, and war again declared.

During this short interval of peace, many Englishmen went over to France, some on business, others on pleasure; when, on the sudden declaration of war, they were seized, and confined in miserable prisons, where, for twelve years, they endured great privations. Many died, and those who survived were set at liberty by the peace in 1814.

In 1804, Bonaparte became emperor of France, and then he persuaded the king of Spain to join him against England. In this new war, the gallant Admiral Nelson was killed in an engagement with the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar, in 1805. The British, however, were victorious, and captured no fewer than nineteen ships of the line, belonging to the enemy. Nelson's remains were honoured with a public funeral, and thanks were voted by parliament to the survivors of the action.

But the principal theatre of our military operations was Spain, where the duke of Wellington fought most of his great battles against the French. This is usually termed the Peninsular war, and lasted about five years, when the French were entirely driven out of Spain and Portugal, and the exiled sovereigns of those countries restored to their respective thrones.

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In consequence of the long war with France, the taxes in England were heavy, provisions were dear, and numbers of manufacturers thrown out of employment; for Bonaparte not only prohibited the importation of British goods into France, but prevented other nations from receiving them, which he had sufficient influence to do, having made himself master of nearly the whole of Europe. The principal foreign markets being thus closed against British manufactures, much inconvenience was felt by the inhabitants of the continent generally, as well as by the English; but it was an indirect cause of peace to all countries, by leading to those hostilities between France and Russia, which ended in the downfall of Bonaparte. The stoppage of trade with Great Britain was found to be so serious an injury to the Russians, that the emperor Alexander, in defiance of the prohibition, allowed his subjects to trade with British merchants as usual, which gave such offence to Bonaparte, that he declared war against Russia, and led his armies into that country, where an unsuccessful campaign checked his ambitious career, and was speedily followed by his total ruin.

During this general warfare abroad, extensive public improvements were going on at home. The East and West India docks were built; and the discovery that vessels might be moved by the powers of steam, even against the wind and tide, was producing an entire revolution in the system of navigation. Gaslights were also introduced, though neither steam vessels nor gas came into general use until after the commencement of the peace. The taste and manners of the people were also advancing with the times, every class of the community appearing to rise higher in the scale of society; elegant accomplishments were more generally studied, and polished manners were becoming more common among all ranks, than at any former period.

The English style of dress had undergone many and great alterations. In the time of Queen Anne, the costume

of a gentleman consisted of a square-cut coat, the tails stiffened out with buckram; a long-flapped waistcoat, large cuffs to the coat, and lace ruffles; the stockings were usually blue or scarlet, the shoes made with high red heels, and men of fashion wore a large wig, a three-cornered gold-laced hat, and a sword. In the next two reigns, tiewigs and pigtails succeeded to the long-curled perukes; but the cocked hats continued in fashion till the French Revolution, when round hats began to be worn, and then wigs were left off, and gentlemen had their own hair frizzled and powdered.

About the same time, ruffles at the wrist were discontinued, and shirt collars began to be worn. Tight pantaloons with Hessian boots, were introduced, and were in very general use till the peace of 1814, when, among the foreigners who visited this country, were some Cossacks, natives of Russia, who wore short boots and loose trousers, which have since been the general dress of Englishmen, who then also began to wear frock coats. Until the latter part of the last century, most ladies used to powder and friz their hair, and wear hoops.

In the year 1810, a change took place in the government of Great Britain, in consequence of the inability of the aged monarch, George the Third, to take any part in public affairs. He had long lost the faculty of sight, and, about this time, was afflicted with the still severer calamity of mental derangement; therefore, his eldest son, the prince of Wales, was appointed Regent, and, for ten years, conducted the government in his father's name. The long reign of George the Third might now be considered as ended; for he never again appeared at the head of public affairs, but spent the last ten years of his life, quite secluded from the world, in Windsor Castle, where he died in the year 1820, having been king of England sixty years, the longest reign recorded in the annals of this country.

The period of the Regency was distinguished by many

important events. In 1814, Bonaparte was dethroned, and permitted to retire to the island of Elba, in the Mediterranean; when Louis the Eighteenth, who had been living privately in England for many years, was restored to the throne of France, and a general peace proclaimed throughout Europe. The return of peace was celebrated with all kinds of public rejoicings. The emperor of Russia, with the king of Prussia, and several other distinguished persons, paid a visit on the occasion to this country, where they were entertained with great magnificence, particularly by the citizens of London, who invited them, with the Prince Regent, to a splendid dinner in Guildhall, with the three illustrious individuals honoured by their presence.

Soon after the departure of the royal visitors from England, Bonaparte made his escape from Elba, and returned to Paris, where, after a short time, he was again recognized as emperor of France. Fortunately, the British army had not yet been ordered home; therefore, the duke of Wellington, aided by the Belgians, Prussians, and other German troops, once more took the field against the usurper, whose ambition had so long disturbed the peace of all Europe. The memorable battle of Waterloo, fought in June, 1815, on a plain, near Brussels, put an end to the contest. Bonaparte was totally defeated, and, having fled from the field, surrendered himself to the English, by going on board a British man of war. He was banished to the island of St. Helena, where he died a few years afterwards.

The sudden change from war to peace, was not attended by those immediate advantages that had been anticipated by the people. The taxes were heavy, on account of the expenses incurred during the wars; masters could not afford to pay good wages to their workmen; and, in consequence of several bad harvests, provisions were excessively dear; so that great discontent prevailed all over the country.

In the midst of these troubles, another misfortune befel th nation, in the death of the Princess Charlotte, only daughter of the Prince Regent, and heiress to the throne. She was married, soon after the peace, to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, then king of Belgium; and as she was then considered as the future queen of Great Britain, and was much beloved, her death, in the year following her marriage, was mourned as a national calamity.

Among the events of the Regency deserving of mention, was an expedition sent out against the Dey of Algiers, under Lord Exmouth, in 1816, for the following reason. The Algerines, although they lived under a regular government, were, in fact, pirates, and were in the practice of plundering the vessels of Christian states, trading to and from the ports of the Mediterranean, unless they were paid tribute, and they made slaves of all prisoners who could not pay a ransom for their liberty. Among these unhappy captives, were a great many Englishmen, whose hard fate being taken into consideration by the British government, it was resolved to stop the evil, and release those who were suffering from it. The project succeeded, for after Algiers had been bombarded, and the shipping and batteries of the enemy destroyed, the Dey of Algiers was forced to submit to the terms proposed by his assailants; the principal conditions of which were, that he should liberate all Christian slaves throughout his dominions, and abolish the custom of enslaving prisoners.

The abolition of Christian slavery in Algiers naturally leads us to the subject of the slave trade, which was partially terminated in the reign of George the Third, and has since been followed up by the complete emancipation of the negroes in the West Indies, and all other British colonies.

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THE SLAVE TRADE.

FROM the very earliest times of which we have any knowledge it appears to have been a practice among mankind to enslave their fellow-creatures. The first slaves, probably, were prisoners taken in battle, since we find that all men in an uncivilized state consider their captives as their property, which they are entitled to dispose of as they please; thus some would put them to death, while others would employ them as slaves, or sell them to other masters.

In the course of time, slavery increased, because the children of bondmen were in bondage also; besides which, in the early ages, parents were allowed to sell their offspring, and although it seems scarcely credible that any father or mother could be cruel enough to do so, yet there is no doubt that this traffic was carried on to a great extent. The Romans had a law, by which those who were not able to pay their debts, became the slaves of the creditor; therefore, you perceive that there were many ways of multiplying the number of bondmen in all nations.

The treatment of slaves, in ancient times, differed very much in different countries; and those bred up in the house, and employed in domestic duties, were often much indulged and comparatively happy; while those employed in field labour were accustomed to hard work and ill-usage. The Grecians, particularly the Athenians, were very kind in their treatment of their slaves; but the Romans wanted humanity in that respect, and sometimes put to death those who were too old to do much service.

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These unhappy creatures were frequently brought from Nubia, and other parts of Africa, by merchants, who sold them in the slave markets, until the Christian religion, by slow degrees, banished slavery entirely from Europe. But scarcely had this part of the world been freed from the sin of keeping men in bondage, when the same system began in America, and it is of the American slave trade I am now about to speak.

The Portuguese were the first of the modern Europeans who carried away negroes from the coast of Africa, for the wicked purpose of selling them. But the sale of negroes did not become a regular trade, authorized by government, till the time of the emperor Charles the Fifth, who consented to the introduction of negroes into the Spanish colonies in America, to supply the place of the natives, who were not sufficiently strong, and died very fast under the hard labour, in the mines, imposed on them by the Spaniards, who were therefore willing to give large prices for the more sturdy blacks, and the trade consequently increased rapidly.

When the English began to form settlements in America, they also found it advantageous to have labourers on their plantations, who were able to do a great deal of work, and to bear the heat of the climate. Sir John Hawkins, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, as already mentioned, fitted out three English vessels, and sailing to the coast of Guinea, filled them with slaves, whom he carried to America, and sold to the planters. The voyage was so profitable, that many British merchants followed his example, and the slave trade was, from that time, to the middle of the reign of George the Third, carried on to such an enormous extent, that, from the year 1680 to 1700, a period of only twenty years, no less than three hundred thousand blacks were conveyed by British vessels to the American colonies, where they were sold. The negroes, in their own country, are a simple, inoffensive race of people, who live in villages, and cultivate abundance of rice

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and corn for their own use. Gold-dust, ivory, wax, and a very valuable kind of gum, of great use in our cotton factories, are obtained there in large quantities.

There are many petty princes among the Africans, who possess absolute power over their subjects; yet before the commencement of the slave trade, these harmless people used to be able to live in ease and plenty, by trading with the merchants of Barbary; but when the Europeans began to traffic with them for slaves, and the black kings found out how large a price they could get for them, they used to go to war with one another for no other purpose than that of obtaining prisoners to sell; and when they had none, they were even tempted to seize on their own subjects, and dispose of them. As money was of no use to them, they were paid in British or Indian goods, such as wearing apparel of various descriptions, iron or copper utensils, fire-arms, scissors, knives, beads, and rum.

The sailors belonging to the slave ships have often been guilty of dreadful barbarities, in setting fire to the villages in the night, and carrying away to their ships all the inhabitants, men, women, and children, as they rushed in terror from their blazing huts. I will not distress you by a recital of the sufferings which these poor creatures were made to endure on the voyage; it is a very sad tale, and we can only hope that it has been somewhat exaggerated.

At length, some humane and distinguished gentlemen in the English parliament spoke against the slave trade, declaring that it was disgraceful to an enlightened country, like this, to encourage it. The cause of the poor blacks being once taken up, people began to think more on the subject, and a committee was formed in the year 1787, to inquire into all the circumstances connected with negro slavery. In consequence of this investigation, the cruelties practised by the captains of slave ships were soon made public, and numbers of persons, who till then had never given attention to the subject, began

to feel very much interested about it, and did every thing in their power to induce the government to pass a law for the abolition of slavery.

It is here but justice to the Quakers to say, that they had always disapproved of the slave trade, and were so determined not to sanction or encourage it by any act on their part, that they never employed slaves on their plantations in America.

Among the most zealous friends of the negroes, was Mr. Wilberforce, a member of parliament, who brought in a bill against the slave trade, that is, he proposed that a law should be made to prohibit the trading in slaves; but, although he was supported by some who were friendly to humanity, he was opposed by others, from various motives; for instance, those who had property in the West Indies, were desirous of having slaves; and, unhappily, people too often lose sight of justice when their own interest is concerned. For twenty years, this subject was constantly debated in parliament; but at last, the bill was passed, and, in 1807, received the assent of the king.

From that time, it was unlawful for the English to buy or sell negroes, but the Spaniards and Portuguese continued to do so; and there were even still some English captains who, for the sake of gain, were wicked enough to carry on their cruel trade under the cover of the Spanish flag; but this deception was soon found out, and, in 1811, a law was made to put a stop to it, by enacting that any British subject detected in buying or selling slaves, should be punishable by transportation for fourteen years. The slave trade was now ended, as far as England was concerned; but the abolition of slavery was another thing, and was far more difficult to accomplish.

The negroes in the West Indies were allowed to marry with each other, and, unfortunately, all their children were the property of their masters; so that as the old slaves died,

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young ones were growing up. The only way, therefore, to abolish slavery, was to make them all free; and the difficulty was, to do this without injustice towards their owners. Several plans were suggested, and, at length, it was resolved that slavery should cease throughout the British colonies, on the first of August, 1834; and that every master should receive a compensation from government, that is, he should be paid a sum of money equal to the value of the slaves he possessed. The accomplishment of this benevolent change cost our own country no less a sum than twenty millions of money.

While thus generously releasing the blacks from the many oppressions under which they had so long suffered, the British government endeavoured to take care to make such arrangements as should prevent the planters from feeling more inconvenience than was absolutely unavoidable; therefore they did not give the negroes their liberty at once, but only changed the nature of their servitude, thus: on the first of August, 1834, they ceased to be slaves, but became apprenticed labourers, and could not quit their masters till the term of their apprenticeship had expired; which, in some cases, was to be in 1838, but in others, later; and the last day of all, the first of August, 1840. The latter date was, however, anticipated, and they were all made free on the first of August, 1838. Thus an end was put to slavery in the British colonies, where the negroes now enjoy the rights and privileges of freemen.

From the time of the restoration of Louis the Eighteenth, the French government permitted the slave trade to be openly carried on till the year 1819, when they pretended to discontinue it; but it still was pursued secretly till the year 1831, when the English government made an arrangement with Louis Philippe, that English cruisers might have the right of searching any French vessel suspected of having slaves on board; which, no doubt, has had a good effect. The

Spaniards and Portuguese, too, have lately agreed to leave off capturing and selling human beings; but there is, I believe, some reason to doubt whether they have kept that promise, nor have they yet emancipated the slaves in their colonies.

The pope also issued a bull, or what we should call an edict, calling upon all Catholic people to discontinue that disgraceful and cruel traffic; so we may reasonably indulge the hope that, in the course of time, not only the slave trade, but slavery also, will be made to cease in all parts of the world.

GEORGE THE FOURTH.

1820 to 1830.

THE accession of George the Fourth cannot be considered as the beginning of a new reign, because he had, in reality, been the sovereign of Great Britain for the last ten years; therefore, when his father died, in 1820, his title of Prince Regent was merely changed to that of king, which made very little difference, either to himself or to the nation.

This monarch had, for many years, been separated from his wife, who had, for some time, been living on the continent; but although no attachment had ever subsisted between them, the princess was naturally desirous of taking her place in society, as queen of Great Britain; therefore, when the news of the late king's death reached her, she set out for England, without delay, to assert her right to be crowned with her husband. The king, however, refused to consent to her demand, which many people thought very unkind; while

others, on the contrary, were of opinion that, as they had lived apart so long, in consequence of their mutual dislike, it would be much better that they should never be re-united.

Nevertheless, the princess was called Queen Caroline; and many addresses, expressive of loyalty and affection, were presented to her by those who thought she was treated with injustice. The king, however, refused to allow her to be crowned with him, or permit her to be present on the occasion; and the unhappy lady died shortly afterwards from the effects of grief and disappointment.

The reign of George the Fourth is remarkable for the progress of education among the poor, the increase of national schools, and the establishment of societies for the diffusion of knowledge by cheap publications. There were two gentlemen in parliament who eminently distinguished themselves, at this period, as the friends of the lower orders. The one was Lord Brougham, whose efforts were directed towards affording them more ample opportunities of gaining instruction; and the other was Sir James Mackintosh, who exerted himself to mitigate the severity of the laws, and to substitute a punishment less dreadful than death for any but the most atrocious crimes.

The pillory, which might be called a species of torture, had been abolished in the last reign; and thus you will find, that as mankind grow more enlightened, they also become more humane; and now that slavery is abolished, that religion has ceased to be a cause of enmity and cruel persecution, and that men are not put to death for comparatively trifling offences, I think we may truly say, there are few relics of ancient barbarism remaining amongst us.

The progress of education was one great national benefit; another was the application of steam, not only to various branches of the manufactures, but even to the purposes of making sea voyages. In the reign of George the Third, the steam-engine had been chiefly used in manufactories, and

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steam navigation had been attempted in America and Scotland, before it was adopted in England. The Americans had a steam-boat on the Hudson river, in the year 1807; but the engine for it was made in England, and sent out to America.

The first steam boats which worked for hire in Great Britain were on the Clyde, in Scotland, about the year 1811; but they very soon afterwards began to appear on the Thames; and it was not long before they were crossing the seas, and making long voyages with more speed and safety than sailing vessels.

In the year 1822, an iron steam-boat was launched on the Thames, for the purpose of running between England and France; and, about four years afterwards, a voyage was performed by steam to the East Indies; on which occasion, the captain of the vessel, which was named the "Enterprise," was presented with ten thousand pounds, which had been subscribed, partly by the inhabitants of India, to be given as a prize to the first commander of a steam-ship who should make a voyage from England to India.

The first steam-boat that ever crossed the Atlantic was built in America, by a very skilful engineer, named Fulton, and came over to Liverpool in twenty-six days. A company was subsequently formed for the purpose of establishing a regular and speedy communication between England and America, by means of steamers, constructed on a large scale; the Great Western and the Sirius were of the number built for this purpose, and made the voyage in fifteen to eighteen days, and thus established a regular and speedy communication between the two countries. Their success induced other attempts; and later, a new company contemplated the bolder attempt of building several steamers on a larger scale, and more powerful construction; one of these was the British Queen, the other the President; which latter vessel foundered at sea, in one of the heaviest gales of late years

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The experiment, as far as these vast vessels were concerned, failed, their immense size subjecting them to dangers in stormy seas, that are less likely to be fatal to vessels of smaller dimensions.

Steam carriages are a later, but not less important, invention. Several railways were begun during the reign of George the Fourth, but there was very little railway travelling till after his death; for people were afraid to trust themselves in carriages that ran along the road at such a rapid rate, without horses to draw them; but the advantages of this new mode of travelling were so soon felt, that few persons would venture to assert that it is not a great national benefit.

The first railway of much importance, was that from Manchester to Liverpool, which was opened in the year 1830, and was then intended chiefly for the carriage of cotton goods, cattle, and coals; the conveyance of passengers being only a secondary consideration. Since then, the system of railway travelling has become general, not only in England, but in many parts of the continent, and more particularly in the United States of America, where it is carried on to a most astonishing extent.

The easy means of communication thus established, by the power of steam, between most of the civilized nations of the earth, cannot fail to have a great and beneficial effect on mankind in general. Commerce has, in consequence, greatly extended, the manners of society are improved by association, and there will doubtless arise a more friendly feeling between the people of different countries, as they mix more freely with each other.

How different was the mode of travelling among our forefathers, who lived in what are called the good old days of Queen Elizabeth, when country squires seldom thought of visiting London above once in the course of their lives; and a worthy citizen used to think it necessary to settle all his affairs, make his will, and take leave of his friends, when

about to undertake a voyage from London to York! Were it possible for them to witness our present railways, what would be their surprise to see a train of carriages flying along the roads, without horses, at the rate of thirty miles an hour; they would certainly think they were in some land of enchantment.

The introduction of railway travelling has created a great deal of employment for civil engineers, in consequence of which, a large proportion of the educated young men of the present age have entered into that profession.

In the meantime, the manufacturing classes were suffering severe distress, owing to the reduction of their wages, many of the workmen not being able to earn more than would afford them bread and potatoes. The farmers also complained, that they were obliged to sell the produce of their land at so low a price, that they could not pay their rents; whilst the landlords said, if they did not receive their rents from the farmers, they could not afford to keep up such large establishments, or spend money to encourage trade. Much discontent, therefore, prevailed against the government, on account of the excessive taxation, and many believed that a greater degree of prosperity would ensue, if some alterations were made in the corn laws, the nature of which I will endeavour presently to explain; therefore, they still continued to petition, as they had long done, for a reform in parliament, or what was usually called the Reform Bill.

These distresses produced frequent and terrible riots in many manufacturing towns; and a great quantity of machinery was destroyed by the workmen, who foolishly thought that, by breaking up the machines which performed so much of their labour, they should have more employment for themselves; but this was a mistaken idea, for the goods made by machinery were far better than any that could be made entirely by hand, therefore it was not likely their masters would be able to sell inferior articles for higher prices; and

unless they could do so, how were they to pay their work-people more wages?

It was not, therefore, by making disturbances, and destroying property, that the evils complained of were to be remedied. The best way was to endeavour to get work elsewhere; a plan that was at last wisely adopted by many thousands of the working classes, who went away to settle in the colonies of Canada, Australia, Van Dieman's Land, and the Cape of Good Hope.

I have hitherto spoken of emigration as a misfortune; and so it is, when people are driven by ill-treatment to leave their native country, where they are living in comfort, and are able to procure plenty of employment to support their families. This compulsory emigration was experienced by the French, when Louis the Fourteenth, by revoking the Edict of Nantes, exposed his Protestant subjects to so much injury, that they were obliged to flee for protection to foreign countries. Numbers of our own countrymen, too, from the days of Henry the Eighth to those of William and Mary, were driven, by religious persecutions and oppressions, to emigrate from their native land, where some of them had been in the enjoyment of wealth and honours.

It was hard for them to leave their own fine homes and lands, and to give up all the luxuries they had been accustomed to from infancy, to embark for the wild shores of a newly-discovered country, where no human dwelling, save the huts of savages, had yet been erected; where the land was uncultivated, and nothing to be seen around but dreary forests. Such were the first civilized inhabitants of the United States of America, who certainly were very unfortunate people; but there is a great difference between them and the emigrants of the present times, who leave their country for the sake of bettering their condition; the latter may reasonably expect to be successful, if they are industrious; for workmen of all kinds are wanted in those countries, where there are yet large

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tracts of waste land that are capable of cultivation, immense forests that require cutting down, and where new towns are rising in every direction.

The case, therefore, is simply this: In England, there are too many labouring people, in Canada and Australia there are not enough; so it is very clear that those who cannot get employment here, are likely to be much better off by going where there is plenty for them to do.

In many cases, the expenses of poor persons who are disposed to settle in the colonies are paid by their respective parishes; and a committee was now formed in London, to provide vessels for their conveyance, with proper supplies of provisions for the voyage. But the goodness of Providence having blessed us with two most abundant harvests in 1843 and 1844, the price of corn was greatly reduced, while wages and employment in manufactures so greatly increased, that these arrangements were discontinued.

A vast number of agricultural labourers, manufacturers, and artizans, were, however, thus removed from England, Scotland, and Ireland, within the last twenty years; and there can be little doubt that many of them have derived great benefit from the change. It is not to be expected that an agricultural labourer or mechanic is likely to make a fortune by emigrating; but any industrious man, by so doing, may earn the means of living in comfort, and even plenty.

I said I would endeavour to explain to you what is meant by the corn laws; and although I am not fond of entering upon what are called political questions, I think you would like to understand something of a subject that is of so much importance to every person in the kingdom.

It is easy to comprehend, that no object can possibly be of greater importance than that of securing to the inhabitants of any country a steady and sufficient supply of corn, which is one of the prime necessaries of life; and as few subjects can be more important than this, so none has occupied a greater

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share of the attention and anxiety of our Legislature, with the view of effecting that object.

At a very early period of our history, a system was pursued, directly the reverse of that which has been introduced in later years. Our ancestors in those days thought that, by prohibiting entirely the exportation of corn grown in this country, and by encouraging, as far as possible, its importation from abroad, they would ensure the possession of a quantity sufficient to meet the wants of the people; but, in time, the policy of that system began to be questioned, and changes were gradually made in the laws respecting corn, until exportation was encouraged and importation was restricted; the object of this new system being to promote agriculture, and to raise the value of land, by increasing the price of corn, in this country, sufficiently high to enable the farmer to pay rent for and grow corn on inferior soils.

In 1773, however, the restrictions imposed upon the importation of corn were considerably modified; and by the law which was then made, whenever the price of wheat in this country was above forty-eight shillings per quarter, foreign wheat might be imported from abroad, upon the payment of a small duty of six-pence per quarter; so that if our crops failed plenty of wheat might still be had at a moderate price.

Subsequently to this period, various alterations were made in the law, each alteration being intended to throw still greater difficulties in the way of the importation of foreign corn. Thus, in 1791, corn might not be brought from abroad till the price in England was fifty-four shillings per quarter:—in 1804, sixty-three shillings was to be the limit;—and in 1815, importation was entirely forbidden, unless the price of wheat grown in England should rise as high as eighty shillings per quarter.

Great suffering to the mass of the people, and inconvenience to the farmers, was found to result from this state of the law;

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for whenever there happened to be a year of scarcity, and the corn, in consequence, rose to the high price that made it lawful to admit foreign wheat into the English markets, there immediately came from abroad, chiefly from Poland, Germany, and Russia, a supply so far exceeding the wants of the people, that the prices of our own produce fell so low, that the farmers were sometimes almost ruined.

To remedy this evil, a new system was introduced in 1829, by which the trade in corn was, for many years, regulated. Under that law, there was no fixed duty on foreign wheat, but the amount of duty depended on the price of English corn, and was so regulated, that it prevented any corn being brought from abroad unless the crops here were so deficient, and the price of bread rose to such a height, as to occasion the most severe distress.

This system was defended by those who possessed land; for which they endeavoured to obtain as much rent as they could; and it is very clear, that if the farmers got a high price for their corn, they could afford to pay a large rent to their landlords; but the manufacturers were opposed to this system; contending that, when corn is dear, the great masses of the people are compelled to expend all their earnings and income in food, which puts a stop to the purchase of manufactures, and obliges the mill-owners to reduce the prices of their goods, and the wages of their work-people, in order to force sales, by lowness of prices; or else to discharge their hands, and shut up the mills; producing such a frightful extent of misery to the manufacturing population, that nothing but the poor-rates could enable them to exist.

The new law of 1829 occasioned much discussion; and, in 1842, a considerable modification of it was introduced. On the 29th of April, an act was passed, which, whilst it adhered to the main principle of the law of 1829, reduced the amount of duty on foreign corn, and thus diminished the protection afforded to the English grower. This modification, however,

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failed to satisfy those who were opposed to the former system.

One of the most remarkable events in the reign of George the Fourth was, the establishment of the new kingdom of Greece, under the following circumstances. The Greeks had, for a very long time, been subject to the dominion of the Turkish empire, which at this period, was governed by a sultan, named Mahmoud. The wrongs endured by the Greeks interested a great many distinguished individuals in their cause; and, among others, the late Lord Byron, so highly celebrated for his literary talents, who in conjunction with Colonel Leicester Stanhope, went to Greece to head the patriots, and spent large sums of money for their service. But Lord Byron died in Greece in the year 1824, to the sincere regret of the Greeks, who lost in him a zealous friend and benefactor.

The warlike struggles of the Greeks to render themselves independent of Turkey still continuing, were found to be so injurious to European commerce in the Mediterranean sea, that the sovereigns of France, England, and Russia, determined to interfere, and made proposals to the Turkish government, with a view of putting an end to the war; pointing out their consequent effects on the commerce of Europe, and intimating, that if the Turks would not consent to make peace on the terms proposed, which were, that they should give up all authority over Greece, except in the exaction of an annual tribute, they would resort to force, and take the Greeks under their protection.

The Turks rejected the proposal; on which, an English fleet under Admiral Codrington, sailed to Navarino, and being joined by the French and Russian squadrons, blockaded the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, which were lying in the harbour, commanded by Ibrahim Pacha, son of Mehemet Ali, the viceroy of Egypt. The battle of Navarino, which was the consequence of this proceeding, was fought on the 20th No-

vember, 1827, when the Turks were completely defeated. The freedom of Greece was thus, at length, accomplished, and the country erected into a kingdom.

The crown was subsequently given to a young German prince, Otho, son of the king of Bavaria,—who, for some years, succeeded in governing his new kingdom; but, in 1862, the discontent of the Greeks became too manifest to be concealed, and a revolution was the consequence; failing to quell which, Otho found himself compelled to quit the kingdom. After some time, in 1863, a prince of the Danish royal family was elected king.

The last great event in the reign of George the Fourth was the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Bill, which freed the Catholics of the United Kingdom from the remainder of the restraints that had hitherto been imposed on them; and thus, for the first time since the change in the national religion, they became entitled to all the rights and privileges enjoyed by the rest of the community, not even being excluded from a share in the government; so that now there are many Catholics in both houses of Parliament.

The king died on the 26th of June, 1830; and was succeeded by his brother, the duke of Clarence.

WILLIAM THE FOURTH.

1830 to 1837.

DURING the comparatively brief reign of William the Fourth, a favourable change was produced in the condition of the

working classes, and the people obtained what they had so long and ardently been desiring, namely, the reform in parliament.

The duke of Wellington, who had been prime minister in the latter part of the reign of George the Fourth, was continued in the same high station by the new king, on his accession to the throne. It was expected that the duke, who had favoured the emancipation of the Catholics, would also have complied with the wishes of the majority of the people, for a reform in parliament; but in a speech in the House of Lords, in which he noticed the subject, he plainly intimated that he would never consent to any such reformation. This declaration of the prime minister occasioned much dissatisfaction throughout the country, and rendered him so unpopular, that he found it necessary to resign his office; and the king put in his place, Earl Grey, who immediately formed a liberal administration, and adopted measures for carrying into execution the plan of parliamentary reform.

About this time, a spirit of discontent and insubordination manifested itself among the agricultural labourers, whose character and condition, generally speaking, had been sadly deteriorated by their dependence on the poor rate, instead of the fair wages of labour, for their support. Barns, stacks of corn, and farm-buildings, were destroyed by fire, in many places; and it was some time before better order and tranquillity were restored.

The frequent discussions held in parliament about the Reform Bill, kept the country in a constant state of excitement; and it was while the question was still in dispute, that a part of the city of Bristol was destroyed by the outrageous conduct of a mob, that assembled in a tumultuous rising, because the recorder of Bristol, Sir Charles Wetherell, had declaimed in parliament against those persons who signed the petition from that city for the much-desired reform. The

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disturbances lasted three days, during which, some of the public buildings, and many private houses, were set on fire, the prisons broken open, and so much mischief done, that the military were called out, and a number of lives were lost, before quiet was restored; and then there was the melancholy spectacle of long rows of houses laid in ruins, by the violence of misguided people.

After many delays, the Reform Bill was passed, in June, 1832, and great rejoicings ensued all over the country. There were illuminations everywhere; the bells were rung, and dinners were given to the poor. The rich also shared in the festivities; and Earl Grey and Lord John Russell, who had used the greatest exertions in the cause, were invited to dine at the Guildhall, where they were magnificently entertained by the citizens of London.

As this bill was to effect such a change in the constitution, and its passage through both Houses was an event of so much public interest, a few words, in explanation of its nature, may not be altogether superfluous. Its principal object was to alter the mode by which members were sent to parliament. It has been seen, in the course of this history, how parliaments were gradually formed, and that, for a long time, none but the nobles and clergy had any share with the king in the government of the country, till, in the reign of Henry the Third, the barons, who opposed the arbitrary measures of that monarch, ordered that four knights should be chosen for every county, to represent the grievances of the people to them, that those grievances be redressed; it being supposed that gentlemen residing in any particular county were likely to have the most accurate information with respect to the condition of its population, and consequently, to know how the taxes might be most equitably levied. At length, deputies were elected for the same purposes, for cities and boroughs as well as for counties.

While the feudal system continued in full force, the people

had but little liberty in the choice of their members, for they dared not vote contrary to the will of their lords, and sometimes the king used to point out those who should be chosen as knights of the shire.

In the time of Richard the Second, when an election was about to take place, the king sent orders to the sheriffs of the different counties, telling them whom he wished to be made knights of the shire, and desiring them to be present at the election, to see that no others were chosen. At that period also, a choice was made, by the king and the nobles, of those cities and boroughs which should send deputies, and it therefore happened that many large places had no representatives whatever; while many small ones had; and this part of the system continued down to the time when the Reform Bill was passed, and was one cause why the people were so anxious for an alteration.

In various parts of the kingdom, there were many ancient boroughs that had long since fallen into decay, and some where there were but few inhabitants remaining, and yet they still sent members to parliament; which appeared inconsistent, since there were many places possessing large populations, which were not privileged to send representatives.

The object of sending members to parliament is this; that the people, who cannot all sit in the national assembly, and help to make the laws, may be empowered to appoint, as their representatives, those who, they have reason to believe, will do the best in their power for them and the country.

One of the bad consequences of the former system, was that it afforded an opportunity for men to obtain seats in parliaments, who were not always very wise and clever persons, such as the legislators or lawgivers of a great nation ought to be; for there were even places without any inhabitants privileged to vote, but where some gentleman held a portion of land or a house, and for that reason, had the power of sending two members to parliament; wherefore he sent

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whomsoever he pleased, to take their places in the House of Commons, without caring whether the people liked them or not. Some members bought their places, which is equally contrary to the principles of a good government, since those who buy their seats, might be expected to sell their votes in parliament; and those who are to make laws for millions of people, ought to be selected for their independence and honesty, as well as for their worth and talent, by the people themselves.

I have enlarged a little on this subject, that you might know, that one of the changes made by the Reform Bill, was to disfranchise such places as I have just mentioned, that is, to take from them the right of sending members to parliament, and to grant it instead to certain large towns, such as Manchester and Birmingham, which had not before enjoyed that important privilege.

Another object of the Reform Bill was, the extension of the elective franchise, which means, the increasing of the number of voters. For instance: in elections for county members, also called knights of the shire, those persons only had the privilege of voting who possessed freehold property worth forty shillings a year; a small sum, you will allow; but there are many thousand men, of high respectability and great riches, who, having no freehold land at all, but being merely the tenants of some great landholders, had no voice in choosing the members who were to represent them; while men, much below them in station, might give their votes, because they happened to possess a little patch of freehold ground. This certainly was not fair, and was thus altered by the Reform Bill: Persons who held lands or houses on lease, and were paying a rent of from ten to fifty pounds a year, and tenants at will paying fifty pounds, were all to have the privilege of voting for county members. By this, you may understand what a difference the Reform Bill made, particularly as people now are not influenced as formerly by the king, and not so much by the nobility.

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All these regulations gave to the middle classes a much higher place in society than they occupied formerly, since they were placed more nearly on an equality, in all but the mere possession of a title, with the aristocracy, that is, with the nobility of the country. There were, however, a party of discontented people, called Chartists, who, not satisfied with the alterations already made, demanded, among other changes in the constitution, what is called universal suffrage; which means, that every man shall have the liberty of voting, without reference to any property whatever.

Very soon after the new parliament had been formed, a great many taxes were taken off, and the duties lessened on articles that are in general use among the poor, who are thus enabled to obtain them at a smaller price. Tea, coffee, beer, soap, candles, and many other necessaries, were thus made much cheaper; every article of clothing, of a common description, might be had for less money, and bread was cheap, in consequence of plentiful harvests. We may, therefore, conclude, that the labouring people of England were made more comfortable than they had been for many years.

In the year 1833, a very important alteration was made with regard to the trade to the East Indies, which is a considerable branch of English commerce, and had previously been carried on by a society of merchants, called the East India Company, who received their first charter from Queen Elizabeth, which charter gave to them a monopoly, or the exclusive right of trading to that part of the world. This company, as before mentioned, established factories at several places, on the coast of India, and by degrees acquired a vast extent of territory in that country, which they had to maintain by force against the power of the native princes; but as they became very rich by the profits of their trade, they could afford to keep regiments of soldiers in India, to protect their possessions there.

As the charter was only granted for a certain number of

years, it has, from time to time, been renewed by different sovereigns. In 1813, a part of the monopoly was done away with, that is, other merchants besides those belonging to the company, were permitted to carry goods to India, on paying certain duties to the government; but the tea-trade, and indeed all commerce with China, was still preserved to the East India Company, alone, for twenty years longer. This term having expired, it was resolved by parliament not to renew the charter or monopoly, but to let others share in the benefits arising from the tea trade; and the consequence is, that tea has been much cheaper ever since; for the company, from whom alone it could previously be purchased, could charge whatever they chose, and people were obliged to give that price, or deny themselves the use of it; but now that any traders may send out ships for tea, we buy it of those who sell it at the most moderate price.

In the latter part of this reign, a war, or we must rather term it a rebellion, broke out in Canada, owing to the dissatisfaction of the people at the manner in which they were governed by the English. This, however, was soon settled, and a more popular form of government has since prevailed there.

On the 20th of June, 1837, died William the Fourth, a sovereign who was highly respected and beloved for his many good qualities, both in public and private life, and whose reign had been marked by peace and prosperity. All the manufactures of the country were in a more flourishing state than they had been in the time of his predecessors; new railways were in progress; and in many parts of London, improvements were being made, which have been going on to an amazing extent ever since; so that we may well say of our metropolis, as some travellers have said of St. Petersburg, that "it is a city of palaces."

QUEEN VICTORIA.

1837 to 1864.

EDWARD, duke of Kent, fourth son of George the Third, married, in 1818, Victoria Maria Louisa, princess dowager of Leiningen, and died at Sidmouth on the 23rd of January, 1820. His daughter, Alexandrina Victoria, was born at Kensington palace on the 24th of May, 1819, and succeeded William the Fourth on the 20th of June, 1837. The duke of York, second son of George the Third, died without issue, in 1827; consequently, on the accession of William the Fourth, the princess Victoria became heir-apparent to the sovereignty, and Parliament enacted that, on the eighteenth anniversary of her birthday, she should, in the event of the demise of the crown, be of age to reign without a regency. The eighteenth anniversary of her birthday was celebrated throughout the country, and within a month afterwards she became queen, in consequence of the death of the king, her uncle.

On the same day that William the Fourth died, the privy council met at Kensington palace. The first person who signed the act of allegiance to Her Majesty was her uncle, Ernest, duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George the Third, who succeeded to the crown of Hanover, through the operations of the Salic law, which precludes females from reigning. He died in November, 1851, and was succeeded by his son, George the Fifth.

Her Majesty personally dissolved parliament on the 17th of July, and on Lord Mayor's day, November 9th, she went

in great state to the Guildhall of London, where she was magnificently entertained. Her Majesty conferred the rank of Baronet on the Lord Mayor, and knighted the sheriffs, one of whom, Moses Montefiore, elected four days after Her Majesty's accession, was the second Jewish sheriff of London; and it is said that this was the first instance of a Jew receiving the honour of knighthood in Britain.

Amidst general rejoicement, Her Majesty was crowned in Westminster Abbey, on the 28th of June, 1838. Instead of a banquet in Westminster hall, there was a grand procession from Buckingham Palace to the Abbey.

Her Majesty was married on the 10th of February, 1840, to her first cousin, Albert (Francis Albert Augustus Charles Emmanuel) prince of Saxe Coburg and Gotha. His father, the duke of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, was brother to the Duchess of Kent and to the king of the Belgians.

The queen's eldest daughter, the Princess Royal, was born November 21st, 1840; and the Prince of Wales was born November 9th, 1841. Princess Alice was born April 25th, 1843; Prince Alfred, August 6th, 1844; Princess Helena, May, 25th, 1846; Princess Louisa, March 18th, 1848; Prince Arthur, May 1st, 1850; Prince Leopold, April 7th, 1853; and Princess Beatrice, April 14th, 1857.

Six days after the birth of the princess Alice, the duke of Sussex died. He was the sixth son of George the Third. In accordance with the directions contained in his will, he was buried in Kensal-green cemetery. This is the only instance of the interment of a member of the royal family in a public burial ground.

Adelaide, the Queen Dowager, died December 2nd, 1849; and the duke of Cambridge, the youngest and last surviving son of George the Third, died, in his 77th year, 1851.

The princess Royal was married on the 25th of January, 1858, to prince Frederick William, nephew to Frederick William the Fourth, of Prussia. By the death of his uncle,

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and the accession of his father, Frederick William the Fifth, on the 2nd of January, 1861, he became crown-prince of Prussia.

The duchess of Kent died in her 75th year, on the 16th of March, 1861, and the queen, for the first time in her life, suffered the pains of domestic bereavement. Her Majesty, the Prince Consort, and the princess Alice, were with the duchess when she breathed her last. Her Majesty had been, from her birth to her accession, under the guidance and guardianship of the duchess, to whose eminent moral qualities, and carefulness in the performance of the important duties which devolved upon her, the nation is indebted for having a Queen accomplished above most sovereigns, and the most beloved of all who have swayed a sceptre in Britain.

The duchess was a great-grandmother, for her granddaughter, the crown-princess of Prussia, had two children, one born in 1859, the other in 1860.

In October, 1859, the prince of Wales matriculated at Oxford, and on the 27th of June, 1860, he, for the first time, performed a public ceremony, by laying the foundation stone of the Lambeth School of Art. On the 9th of the following month, he left England on a transatlantic tour, and landed at Newfoundland on the 24th. On the 3rd of August he arrived at St. John's, Newfoundland. He landed at Montreal on the 25th of August, and opened the Industrial Exhibition of Montreal and province of Canada. On the same day his royal highness opened the Victoria Bridge at Montreal. This stupendous work of art is more than five times longer than the longest bridge ever before constructed: its total length being 9,500 feet. Its cost was 17,000,000*l.* On the 1st of September, the prince of Wales laid the foundation stone of the Parliament House of Canada, at the new capital, Ottawa.

By special invitation, the prince of Wales visited the United States; he arrived at Washington, October 3rd.

He visited the tomb of Washington, and by its side he planted a chestnut. The incident of a great-grandson of George the Third,—of an heir-apparent to the British throne—standing bare-headed at the tomb of Washington, is, in itself, worthy of special record, and eminently suggestive.

On the 11th, the prince entered New York; on the 20th he embarked at Boston for England, and arrived at Windsor on the 15th of November.

In 1838, the "Chartist" faction commenced a violent political agitation, which continued for about ten years. The Chartists were chiefly mechanics, labourers, and others of the lower classes, who were led by demagogues to desire a "People's Charter," composed of "six points," namely: annual Parliaments, universal suffrage, vote by ballot, equal electoral districts, abolition of the property-qualification of members of Parliament, and payment of members. Their first great meeting was held at Birmingham, August 6th, 1838. At subsequent meetings, the Chartist leaders advised their followers to employ physical force to compel government to grant the Charter. The adoption of this foolish advice led to serious disturbances, loss of life, and destruction of property, in various parts of the country. In December, 1839, a royal proclamation was issued against the seditious meeting of the Chartists. Frost, Jones, and Williams, Chartist leaders, were, in 1840, condemned to death, for inciting a riot at Newport, November 4th, 1839, but their sentences were commuted to transportation. Serious riots occurred in 1842, but no event worth recording took place, in connection with the Chartist movement, till early in 1848, when it was anticipated that the Chartists were preparing for an insurrection on an extensive scale.

Feargus O'Connor, an Irish member of Parliament, encouraged the Chartists to procure as many signatures as possible to a petition to the legislature, and he invited them to assemble in a body to accompany him to the House of Parliament when

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he went to present it. The appointed place of meeting was Kennington-common, the day the 10th of April.

An immense meeting of lawless men, and of men who could easily be induced to resort to any violence, was anticipated. Government took active preventive measures. About 200,000 men were sworn by the magistrates as special constables. The police arrangements were admirable, and on the appointed day the Chartists saw that it would be vain to attempt to march in procession through the city. Thousands of valiant and boisterous Chartists were dispersed by a smart shower of rain. A number of petty robberies were committed, but, except by a suspension of business, the day of the Chartist demonstration was signalized by no very serious public evil. On the contrary, from that day, Chartism became less and less formidable, and more and more contemptible. O'Connor died insane in 1855.

The Chartists asserted that their petition weighed five tons, and had more than five and a half million signatures. It was found to weigh only five hundred-weight, and to contain fewer than two million signatures, of which many were, beyond doubt, fictitious. The petition was, of course, indignantly rejected by Parliament.

Contemporaneous with the Chartist movement in England, was the establishment of the Precursor Society in Ireland. This society was organised by Mr. Daniel O'Connell, an eloquent Irish member of Parliament, who maintained that his country was treated with injustice by the government. His proposed remedy was to agitate, by petitions, meetings, and other means, for justice to Ireland.

Women and children, as well as men, were admitted as members of the society, on payment of an enrolment fee of one shilling. As the Precursor Society proved a failure, an association for the repeal of the legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland was instituted by O'Connell, who, in April, 1843, announced that, in the following September, he

would effect a repeal of the Union. Immense meetings were held, and the agitation in Ireland was so great that the government determined on prosecuting the leaders of it. O'Connell and nine others were arrested on the 14th of October. They were tried in Dublin early in the following year, and on the 12th of February, O'Connell and eight out of the nine others, were convicted, fined, and imprisoned. An appeal was made to the House of Lords, and the sentence was reversed. The state prosecutions, however, had the effect of checking the violence of the agitation.

In 1844, Parliament passed several acts, which were framed for the conciliation of Ireland. In the following year, the Irish Board of National Education was established; the Parliamentary grant to the Roman Catholic college of Maynooth was increased; and colleges, for secular learning only, were also established in Ireland. The Maynooth grant gave great dissatisfaction to a large number of Protestants, and the "Godless colleges," as they were termed, were objected to by many Romanists, as well as Protestants.

The failure of the potato crop, in 1846, caused a famine in Ireland. About 750,000*l.* was raised by subscriptions in England for the relief of the sufferers, and a parliamentary grant of 100,000*l.* was made for the same object.

But, in January, 1847, when Ireland was slowly recovering from the sad effects of a year of famine, disease, and almost unprecedented mortality, the "Young Ireland" party, which under the leadership of Mr. Smith O'Brian and others had, during the incarceration of O'Connell and his colleagues, been formed, incited the peasantry to a series of outrages, which called for vigorous proceedings on the part of government. O'Connel died in 1847. In 1848, O'Brian went to Paris, to invite the French over to invade Ireland; and John Mitchell, who edited an Irish newspaper, called the *United Irishman*, openly urged insurrection. For this he was tried and transported. When O'Brian returned to Ireland, he headed a riot

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in Tipperary. He was captured, tried, and sentenced to death, as a traitor; but his life was spared, and he was transported. He was afterwards pardoned, and allowed to return home. In 1849, the Irish poor-law was amended by Parliament, who also made a liberal grant for the relief of the destitute state to which the country had, by famine and the interruption of labour by agitation, been reduced.

Her Majesty's first visit to Ireland was in August, 1849; and in the October following, the Encumbered Estates Commission was opened at Dublin, with a view to improve the state of the country.

In 1850, another liberal grant for the relief of distress in Ireland was made; and, to please the Irish, her Majesty's third son was named Patrick, after the patron saint of Ireland.

The Affghanistan war began in 1839, and was the first of a series of wars in India, which lasted for ten years.

The Affghans had, for many years, shown hostility to the East India Company, which ruled the British possessions in India. The throne of Cabul, an important Affghan kingdom, had been usurped by Dost Mohammed, who, as well as the Shah of Persia, was supposed to be favourable to the policy of the emperor of Russia, which was to extend his dominions, so as to weaken the influence of the British in India. The East India Company, therefore, resolved to place Shah Soojah, the rightful heir of Cabul, on the throne. Their determination was strengthened in consequence of the Persians, assisted by the Russians, having attempted to capture Herat, the capital of a province of the same name, which was governed by Kamrah, nephew of Soojah.

British troops crossed, for the first time, the river Indus, in February, 1839. They captured Candahar, where, in May, Shah Soojah was crowned. On the 23rd of June, the British, commanded by Sir J. Keene, captured Ghuznee, one

of the strongest fortified cities in India, and which was garrisoned by Dost Mahommed by 3,500 men, 500 of whom were slain, and the remainder taken prisoners. The English loss was 191 killed and wounded. Dost Mahommed, on hearing of the capture of Ghisnee, quitted Cabul, with an army of about 13,000 men, all of whom, with the exception of about 300, deserted him; and Soojah took possession of Cabul. He was, however, so unpopular that it was necessary for a strong British force to be kept, to prevent insurrection.

Dost Mahommed, having ventured to attack the British, in 1840, was defeated. He surrendered to Sir W. M'Naghten, who sent him to Calcutta. Lord Auckland, then governor-general, treated him with great respect.

There were two other places besides Cabul where British forces were stationed in Affghanistan, namely, at Jellalabad, under Sir Robert Sale; and at Candahar, under General Nott. The English stationed near Cabul, were frequently attacked by the Ghilzies, hardy mountaineers, who occupied the passes between Cabul and Jellalabad. General Sale undertook an expedition against the Ghilzies; but in consequence of difficulties attendant on fighting such men in the mountain fastnesses, with which they were well acquainted, the expedition was fruitless. The British, after sustaining severe losses, retreated.

In November, 1841, the Affghans, at Cabul, encouraged by the success of the Ghilzies, broke out into open revolt, murdered five English officers, and committed the grossest outrages on all who were on the side of Soojah. They were led by Akbar, a son of Dost Mahommed. He had taken up a strong position in an important pass, and signified his wish to come to peaceable terms with the British. Sir William M'Naghten, accompanied by a small escort, went to hold a conference with Akbar. He was beset by a party of Akbar's followers, and murdered; those who accompanied him were made prisoners.

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Shortly afterwards, it was agreed by treaty (December 10th), that the British should quit Cabul, and that they should not be molested on their way. On Christmas-day, General Elphinstone, the commandant at Cabul, with about 5000 soldiers, and 12,000 persons in various ways connected with them, set out for Jellalabad, a distance of about ninety miles. No sooner were they out of reach of their former cantonments, than, in treacherous violation of the treaty, they were attacked by the Affghans, and had to fight their way, as best they could, through mountain passes, and in a most inclement season. The officers were in much anxiety for the safety of the defenceless men, women, and children, who accompanied the army; but retreat was impossible. For ten miles, they had bravely fought their way, when they were met by Akbar at the head of his army. He told them that he could not restrain the violence of the Affghans, but he offered to protect the women and children, and to conduct them back to Cabul. The offer was accepted, and some of the married officers returned with their wives, and a number who were wounded returned also. Instead of conducting the party back to Cabul, Akbar brought them to a fortress about fifty miles distant from Cabul, and there detained them as prisoners. Out of nearly 17,000 persons, only one man, Dr. Brydon, reached Jellalabad. He brought the melancholy intelligence that all who did not return with Akbar had perished.

Shortly after the British quitted Cabul, Soojah was assassinated; but that circumstance did not induce the British to end the war. General Sale held Jellalabad, and, in 1842, defeated Akbar.

Two divisions of British forces marched; at the same time, by different roads, to Cabul. One was commanded by General Nott, the other by General Pollock.

Nott, on the 30th of August, captured and destroyed Ghiznee, after having gained a brilliant victory over the

Affghans in its vicinity. A few days afterwards, Akbar, with a strong force, was met and defeated by Pollock; the battle was in the Teezeen valley, near Cabul, which, two days afterwards, was entered in triumph by the victorious British, who planted their flag on the citadel, rescued Lady Sale and the other prisoners, and also upwards of three hundred Sepoys, who had been reduced to slavery by the Affghans. In December, the British wisely quitted Affghanistan, leaving the Affghans to choose their own rulers and settle their own feuds.

Scinde is a large territory situated on each side of the river Indus. It was governed, at the time of the Affghan war, by Ameers, independent chiefs, who had made a friendly treaty with the British; but when the war began, they refused to allow British troops from Bombay to pass through their territories towards Cabul. The British appealed to arms, captured Hyderabad and Kurrachee, the two principal towns in Scinde, and compelled the ameers to sign a treaty, by which they became subject to the British government.

Shortly after the British had left Affghanistan, the ameers disputed the right of British vessels to navigate the Indus. Sir Charles J. Napier, with a force of less than 3,000 troops, was sent to compel the ameers to abide by their treaty. They raised, from several warlike tribes, an army of 20,000 men, and gave battle to the British. They were defeated at Meanee, February 16th, 1843, and the three principal ameers surrendered to the victors. The other ameers strove to maintain their independence, but another great battle decided the conflict in favour of British prowess. Scinde was annexed to our Indian territories, Napier was appointed governor, and the navigation of the Indus was made free to all nations.

Gwalior, a small but important Mahratta state, had given the British much trouble. In consequence of the native forces having dethroned the Maharajah, or chief, the British interfered. On the 29th of December, two decisive victories

were achieved by our troops, one by General Gough, at Maharajpore, the other by General Grey, at Punniar. The objects of the expedition were gained.

Sir Henry Hardinge superseded Lord Ellenborough, as governor-general of India, in 1844. He desired peace, and did all he could to secure it; but towards the close of 1845, he was compelled to commence another Indian war. It was occasioned thus: In the north of India is a large district, called the *Punjaub*, or "five rivers," (the Ravee, the Indus, the Jelum, the Chenab, and the Sutlej); the people are called Sikhs; they are warlike and powerful. For some years, the Sikhs had been firm and valuable allies of the British. Their chief, Runjeet Singh, had, by conquest, extended his dominions greatly, and he assumed the title of king of Lahore, as Lahore was his seat of government. He agreed with the British that he would not attempt to extend his dominions beyond the Sutlej, and he faithfully kept the treaty. He died in 1839. He had long maintained a well-disciplined army, in which were French officers, who gave instructions in European tactics. After his death, the regular army was disbanded, and anarchy prevailed at Lahore. The Sikhs, no longer controlled by an honourable chief, encroached on British territories.

Their aggressions were, from time to time, successfully repelled. Sir Henry Hardinge endeavoured, in vain, to induce the Sikhs to observe the treaty, and recourse to arms was his only alternative. At the battle of Moodkee Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief, defeated the Sikhs. In this battle the gallant Sir Robert Sale was mortally wounded. Three days afterwards, the Sikhs were defeated at Ferozepore; the battle was continued on the following day, and again the British were conquerors.

On the 28th of January, 1846, Sir Harry Smith defeated the enemy at the great battle of Aliwal · but a still greater

victory was gained by Sir Hugh Gough, at Sobraon, on the 10th of February. The enemy was totally defeated, the victors marched triumphantly to Lahore, and dictated terms of peace. The treaty of Lahore was signed on the 9th of March. For their meritorious services, Hardinge and Gough were raised to the peerage, the former was created a viscount, the latter, a baron.

In 1847, Earl Dalhousie became governor-general of India, and, in the following year, the Sikh war was renewed in consequence of the violation of the treaty of Lahore. Lord Gough, and the generals under him, gained several victories before the close of the year. He won the important battle of Chillianwallah, on the 13th of January, 1849, and on the 21st of the following month, he achieved a glorious triumph at Goojerat. This was the last great battle in the Punjaub war.

The whole Sikh force surrendered unconditionally to Lord Gough, on the 11th of March. When the governor-general received the news, he issued a proclamation (March 30th) in which he declared the Punjaub to be annexed to the British dominions.

The battle of Chillianwallah had been so misrepresented in England, that, on the 6th of March, Sir Charles J. Napier was appointed commander-in-chief, in place of Lord Gough, and had left London for India only a few days before the Punjaub was annexed.

In 1856, the kingdom of Oude was annexed to the British-Indian dominions, by resolution of the governor-general in council, and, in the following year, the Indian mutiny broke out. It commenced at Meerut, on Sunday evening, May 10th, during church-time. Great atrocities were perpetrated by the Sepoys, or native soldiery. On the following day, Delhi, the ancient capital of the Mogul empire, was taken by the rebels. It was not re-captured till the 21st of September. The mutiny at Lucknow began on

the 30th of May. The subsequent siege is one of the most memorable in the annals of warfare. On Michaelmas day, Lucknow was re-taken by the British. At Cawnpore, the mutiny broke out on the 5th of June; and exactly three weeks afterwards, the Europeans, who had sustained a siege in the barrack hospital, capitulated. Their commander, the gallant Sir Hugh Wheeler, was killed on the 30th, and they had neither water nor provisions. Nana Sahib, the rebel chief, agreed to convey them to Allahabad in boats. When however the boats were in the middle of the river, they were treacherously fired on, and those Europeans who escaped, and regained the shore, were taken captive; the men were immediately massacred, and the women and children imprisoned till the 18th of the following month, when they were ruthlessly butchered by order of Nana Sahib; and their bodies thrown into a well, over which a monument to their memory has since been raised.

In 1858, the Indian mutiny was quelled, although from the nature of the country, and the character of the rebels, it was impossible to restore tranquillity to Bengal, except by degrees, and by unremitting vigilance, such vigilance as Sir Colin Campbell, the commander-in-chief, exerted. Sir Colin Campbell was, for his eminent services, raised to the peerage, by the title of Lord Clyde. Of the British heroes who closed their glorious career in quelling this, one of the most formidable mutinies in the annals of history, volumes have been written. The names of Havelock, Sir Henry and Sir Hugh Wheeler, Lawrence, Peel, Nicholson, and many others, will ever be illustrious in the heroic page.

In September, the government of British-India was transferred from the East India Company to the sovereign of Great Britain. This vast accession of empire adds greatly to the glory of Britain. "The Ganges and the Indus are as much hers as the Thames and the Severn. She possesses the triple chain of the Himalayas; four thousand miles of

coast; a vast peninsula unsurpassed for fertility and beauty; ancient popular cities; sacred shrines innumerable; more races and languages than are known; and traditions ever pointing to the glories of the past, and the visions of the future."

The second Burmese war ended in June, 1853. The great point gained was the free navigation, by British subjects, of the Irrawaddy, the most important river of the Burmese empire.

In December, Pegu was annexed to the British-Indian dominions. This was brought about by the gross violation, by the king of Ava, of the treaty of Vandaboo, which was ratified at the conclusion of the last Burmese war.

The overland route to India, a great achievement, by which intercourse with our possessions there was accelerated, was first accomplished by Mr. Waghorn, in 1845; and the first railway was opened in India in 1853. Up to the end of April, 1861, nearly 35,000,000*l.* had been expended on railway works in India. This large sum was about the tenth of the paid-up capital of all the railways in the United kingdom.

In September, 1860, intelligence of a famine in the north-west provinces of India, reached England. Subscriptions to an enormous extent were raised for the relief of the sufferers. In the course of nine months, the committee, presided over by the Lord Mayor of London, forwarded to India upwards of 100,000*l.*

The first war between Great Britain and China began in 1839. Its origin may be briefly traced. The first European traders with China were the Portuguese, who visited Canton in 1516. Previous to that year, Europeans knew very little about China, but its ports were, soon afterwards, frequently visited by the merchant-ships of Europe; more especially by those of the Dutch, and the British East India Company.

Since the year 1644, when the Mancho Tartars conquered

China, the empire has been under a Tartar emperor, whose ministers are nearly all of his own nation. The Tartar government is despotic, and jealous of Chinese intercourse with Europeans. By degrees, all Chinese ports, except Canton, were closed against British merchants, and even at Canton, the only Chinamen who were allowed to trade with Europeans were those specially licensed to do so by the Tartar government. These privileged Chinese were called Hong merchants, and they imposed such heavy fines and duties on the British traders, that, in 1793, an embassy was sent from London to Pekin, to endeavour to obtain a better arrangement. The British Ambassador, Lord Macartney, was treated with great respect in China, but he could not succeed in obtaining redress of grievances.

Tea was first introduced into Britain in the reign of Charles the Second, and till 1834, when the trade of China was thrown open to all British merchants, the East India Company were monopolists of the tea trade.

The Chinese, as well as the Turks, smoke and chew opium, which intoxicates them, and leads them to follow vicious courses, and to commit many crimes. In order to check the evils resulting from the bad use of opium, the emperor of China revived, by an edict, the obsolete law prohibiting its sale and use.

In the British East Indian colonies, the white poppies, from which opium is extracted, had been extensively cultivated, chiefly for the Canton trade. This made opium cheap in China, and the evils resulting from its consumption increased. The Chinese government sent, in 1839, a special commissioner to Canton, to enforce the edict against the opium trade. So far as the emperor was concerned, this was no more than a judicious regulation; but its enforcement was, in reality, a contrivance of the Hong merchants, who, during the existence of the East India Company's monopoly, annually received a "subsidy," for permitting the importation of opium.

The Hong merchants, no longer subsidised, were loud in their complaints against what, for their private interest, they had long tolerated; and they induced the emperor to enforce his edict. The British cabinet took measures to counteract the designs of the Hong merchants, and sent out captain Elliot to superintend the Canton trade. Agreeably with his instructions, he refused to act in accordance with the Chinese Commissioner's orders, he was, therefore, with several British merchants, arrested in April.

The prisoners obtained their freedom, on promising to deliver up the opium then in the port of Canton. Opium to the value of 3,000,000*l.* was given up by the 30th of May. But the dispute continued, and, in November, war commenced. Two British men of war defeated a Chinese fleet, of which five vessels, each with two hundred men on board, were entirely destroyed. Immediately afterwards, the Governor-general of India, on the part of Her Majesty, formally declared war against China, as the emperor had prohibited his subjects from trading with the English.

The war continued till August, when a treaty was signed on the 29th, on board the Cornwallis. The island of Hong Kong was ceded to Great Britain; the Chinese agreed to indemnify the British for the expenses of the war, as well as for the opium which they confiscated; and also to open, in addition to the port of Canton, the ports of Amoy, Foo-choo, Ning-po, and Shangai.

The hostilities of the Chinese towards the British occasioned a second war, which commenced in April, 1847, when the defensive forts of Canton were captured, and the British troops advanced to the gates of the city. Had the Chinese not have come to terms, it was the intention of Sir John Davis, the governor of Hong Kong, to capture the city.

In 1856, the Chinese again commenced hostilities against the British, by bombarding the Arrow, a small merchant vessel, which was lying at anchor near Canton. Twelve of

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the crew were seized, and the British flag was hauled down. Sir John Bowring, the British plenipotentiary at Canton, demanded an apology. This was insolently refused. As negotiations with Yeh, the Chinese governor of Canton, were fruitless, Sir John Bowring had recourse to more effectual means of shewing that the British flag must be treated with respect, even by natives of the "Celestial Empire." Canton was bombarded on the 28th of December, and taken on the following day. On the 5th of January, 1858, Yeh was taken prisoner, whilst, in an undignified disguise, attempting to escape over a wall. He made abject submission; his life was spared, but he was sent as a prisoner to Calcutta, where he remained till after a treaty of peace was signed at Tien-tsin on the 26th of June. By the terms of this treaty, the British government was to have its representative at Pekin. The ratification of the treaty was delayed under various pretences on the part of the Chinese. Mr. Bruce, the British ambassador, determined on proceeding to Pekin, to get the emperor to ratify the treaty. Anticipating some opposition, Mr. Bruce resolved on having the escort of a squadron, in his voyage up the river Peiho. The squadron, which was under the command of admiral Hope, had not proceeded far up the river before a heavy fire was opened on it from masked batteries, (June 23rd, 1859). The British were wholly unprepared for such treachery; their brave opposition was useless, and they were obliged to retreat, after sustaining a loss, in killed and wounded, of 464 men. The Chinese, elated by their success, fortified Canton and the entrance to the Peiho, and attempted to excuse their perfidy, by attributing the attack on the British fleet to a mistake, and by explaining that they did not intend, by the treaty of Tien-tsin, that the British or French ambassador should pass up the Peiho, to Pekin.

This occasioned a renewal of the war. Great Britain and France now co-operated in sending an expedition to obtain

redress of injuries, and the fulfilment of the terms of the treaty of Tien-tsin. The demands of the allies were peremptorily refused.

The troops of the two nations reached the mouth of the Peiho river on the 1st of August, 1860. The first battle was fought on the 12th. The successes of the allies, especially the capture of the Taku forts, induced the Chinese emperor to send an ambassador to treat for peace; but it was evident to the plenipotentiaries, Lord Elgin and Baron Gros, that the Chinese were merely scheming to gain time, and, therefore, on the 8th of September, the allied forces began their march on Pekin. The Tartar government of China was, at the same time, harrassed by the Tai-pings, a rebel faction. A rival to the Tartar emperor at Pekin, reigned at Nankin. There were also other insurrections in various parts of the empire. These internal commotions, although they occasionally gave the allies some trouble, tended materially to facilitate the object of their expedition.

On the 6th of October, the emperor's summer palace at Pekin was sacked by the French, and subsequently the whole of its valuable contents was seized by the allies, or destroyed. On the 13th, the city of Pekin was surrendered, just as the allies were about to bombard it. On the 26th, peace was concluded, and, on the 5th of November, the allies withdrew from Pekin.

The British forces employed in the capture of Pekin were chiefly troops proceeding from India. They were equipped under the direction of Lord Clyde, and were under the command of Sir Hope Grant.

The Chinese war, of 1860, is memorable as the first in which the improved gun, invented by Sir William Armstrong, was used in actual warfare.

In 1801, the consumption of tea in the United Kingdom, was under 24,000,000 lb. in 1860, nearly 77,000,000 lb. were consumed. This shows not only the great increase

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of population, and the advantage of tea being cheaper, but also the importance of our being able to trade with China free from those restrictions to which Europeans were subjected by the Chinese, who affected to regard them as "barbarians."

British war steamers were first used at the siege of Acre, in 1840. Mehemet Ali, pasha of Egypt, having renounced his allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey, the British government sent a fleet, under Napier and Stopford, to assist the Porte. The result was, that Mehemet Ali was soon compelled to forego all claim to independent sovereignty. In 1841, the sultan permitted a Protestant bishopric to be established at Jerusalem. Mehemet Ali died in 1849, and was succeeded by his son, Ibrahim Pasha.

British settlers at the Cape of Good Hope had suffered great losses from the predatory incursions of native tribes, who inhabited a large district called Kaffirland. War against the Kaffirs was declared in 1846; it began in 1847, and continued, with short intervals, for seven years. It was terminated by the skill and energy of the British commander, General Cathcart.

In 1856, England declared war against Persia, the Shah having violated his treaty with the British, by laying siege to Herat. Bushire was taken by the British on the 10th of December. A treaty of peace was signed on the 5th of March, 1857, but the intelligence did not reach the seat of war till nearly a month afterwards. At the battle of Mohammera, March 26th, the Persians sustained a decisive defeat.

A revolution in Paris, in 1848, compelled king Louis Philippe to abdicate and seek refuge in England. A republic was established in France; and so active were the supporters of republican principles, that, during the year, there was a revolution, or an insurrection, in almost every constitutional kingdom, or state. The throne of Great Britain

was the most secure, as well as the most honourable, in the world; and, in 1848, no country in Europe was so tranquil as England.

Prince Louis Napoleon, nephew of the emperor Napoleon Buonaparte, was banished from France in 1836. In 1840, he landed, with a small band of followers, on the coast of France, and attempted to raise an insurrection at Boulogne He was captured, and imprisoned in the castle of Ham, whence he escaped to England. He was a special constable, in London, when the Chartist riot was anticipated, in 1848; but he shortly afterwards proceeded to France, and, in December, 1850, he was made president of the Republic. Two years later, the most remarkable event on the continent was the re-establishment of the French empire by the popular election of the president of the republic, as Napoleon the Third. He was proclaimed emperor on the 2nd of December, 1852.

Let us now turn our attention to a few of the many important events connected with the domestic history of England, during the reign of Queen Victoria.

The Anti Corn-Law League originated in a meeting of seven gentlemen at Manchester, September 24th, 1838. Its object was to have corn imported into the United Kingdom duty free, and its success was most remarkable. In the first four years of its existence, its managers spent 100,000*l.* in lectures, pamphlets, and other means of making their object popular.

The reduction of the corn duty, in 1842, failed to give satisfaction to any but a small party, who thought that it might weaken the influence of the League. It had a contrary effect. In 1843, nearly a million of "Free-Trade" publications were issued. In 1844, the efforts of the League were still greater, and in 1845 its popularity was so great that at one meeting at Manchester, a subscription of nearly 60,000*l.* was raised. A bazaar held in Covent-garden theatre produced 25,000*l.* and, in the course of the year, the receipts, from

various sources, were enormous. The object of the League was accomplished in 1846, when parliament decided that a reduced duty on imported corn was to be levied until February 1st, 1849, after which date only a nominal duty of one shilling per quarter was to be levied.

The frequency and ravages of infectious diseases in poor neighbourhoods, led the Poor Law Commissioners, in 1839, to adopt measures to remedy the evils. A general Board of Health was established, having for its object the improvement of the dwellings of the poor, a plentiful supply of water in towns, proper systems of drainage and ventilation, plans for general and effective vaccination at the public expense, the closing of burial grounds in towns, and the formation of cemetries at a convenient distance from populous parts. Public parks, baths, and wash-houses, and other means of conducing to the health and comfort of the people, have been adopted. The government has, for some years, successfully encouraged and aided emigration to the British colonies. Penny savings banks, and post-office savings banks under government authority, have been established throughout the country; and various other methods of improving the social condition of the masses, are now being carried out, not only by the government, but also through the benevolence of the public. Hospitals, and other charitable institutions, have multiplied wonderfully, and are still increasing in number as well as in usefulness.

The Free Church of Scotland was established in 1843, by the secession of nearly 500 ministers of the established Scotch Church, in consequence of a dispute about church patronage.

All penal enactments against Roman Catholics were rescinded in 1846. Consequently, numerous Roman Catholic institutions were established in England, and many efforts were made by the Roman clergy and the Jesuits, to proselytise the Protestants. In order to give the Romish clergy in

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England greater influence, Pope Pius IX. in 1850, issued a bull, or proclamation, to establish an English Roman Catholic episcopate. Dr. Wiseman, a cardinal priest, was appointed archbishop of Westminster. Beverley, Liverpool, Northampton, Newport, Birmingham, Hexham, Southwark, Salford, Shrewsbury, Nottingham, Plymouth, and Clifton, were denominated bishoprics.

As only the sovereign can confer ecclesiastical titles, or appoint clergymen to bishoprics, the papal bull occasioned great commotion throughout the country. Even loyal English Roman Catholics expressed regret that the head of their church had ventured to adopt so unwise and unwarrantable a measure. It was in consequence of this "Papal aggression," that the Ecclesiastical Titles' Bill was passed, in the Parliamentary session of 1851.

The London and Birmingham railway, the first which had a metropolitan terminus, was completed in this reign, and was opened throughout in 1838. Since then, railways have increased amazingly, in number and extent. In June, 1861, eight different lines had their termini in the metropolis.

The first electric telegraph in England was invented by Wheatstone, in 1837, and the first line of telegraphic wires was laid in 1839. The first working line was on the London and Blackwall railway, in 1842. The Electric Telegraph company was established in 1846. In 1851, the submarine telegraph between Dover and Calais was laid.

The Thames Tunnel was opened throughout in March, 1843; and in March, 1850, the most wonderful viaduct in the world, the tubular bridge across the Menai Straits, was opened. The Royal Agricultural Society was established in 1838, and the Association for the Promotion of Social Science, in 1857.

Gun cotton was invented in 1846; and, in the same year, gutta-percha was first introduced into England for manufacturing purposes.

Florins were first coined in Great Britain in 1849, and in 1860 the bronze currency was first coined and issued, the bronze coinage being intended to gradually supersede copper money throughout the kingdom.

Daguerreotype, of which photography is an improvement, was invented in 1839. Daguerre died in 1851. The uniform penny postage came into operation in 1840.

In June, 1855, the compulsory penny stamp on newspapers was abolished. In four years and a half, the number of newspapers in the United Kingdom, increased by 400, "A number nearly equalling the number of newspapers extant since the year 1655, (when the *London Gazette* was founded), to the beginning of 1850. At that time, 1850, there were not more than 500 (if so many) newspapers existing in Great Britain and Ireland."* In January, 1861, there were 1,121.

Joseph Lancaster, the founder of the British and Foreign School Society, died in 1839; and Birkbeck, the founder of Mechanics' Institutes, died in 1841. In 1847, the Board of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland was established, and in 1847, the Committee of Council on Education issued the minutes which form the basis of the existing system of distributing the annual parliamentary grant towards elementary instruction in Great Britain. The reformatory school bill was passed in 1856.

The discovery of the gold region of California, in 1847, occasioned much emigration, as did also the discovery of the Australian gold regions in 1851. Upwards of 3,500,000 persons emigrated from the United Kingdom, in the course of fifteen years, ending December, 1860. This number is about equal to the population of the kingdom of Sweden; it is greater than the population of Scotland.

The navigation laws were repealed in 1849, and in 1854, the coasting trade of Great Britain was made free to all nations.

Newspaper Press Census, for 1861.

In May, 1845, Sir John Franklin sailed from England on an expedition to discover the North West Passage, from which, neither he, nor any of his brave companions, ever returned. It was ascertained, by Captain M'Clintock, who returned in September, 1859, from his search after the missing expedition, that Franklin died on the 11th of June, 1847; that the ships were abandoned in the ice, in 1847; and that the whole of the crew had perished.

Captain M'Clure, who had preceded M'Clintock, in the search for the expedition, discovered the North West Passage in 1853, and ascertained that it would not be available for the purposes of commerce.

The Great Western steamer, the first ship that crossed the Atlantic by steam alone, made, in 1838, a passage from Bristol to New York, in fifteen days. In 1858, the Great Eastern steam-ship was launched (January 31st). It can carry upwards of 10,000 persons. It was built by Mr. Scott Russell, under the direction of Mr. Isambard Kingdom Brunel, who died (September 15th, 1859) a few days after the great ship left port, on her trial trip across the Atlantic. She made the passage in eleven days.

On the 1st of May, 1851, the celebrated "Great Exhibition of Works of Industry of all Nations," was opened by Her Majesty. It was erected in Hyde Park, and occupied an area of nearly eighteen acres. The building was of glass, in a handsome framework of iron, so that, in the structure, strength and lightness were ingeniously combined. It was called the Crystal Palace. The idea of the Exhibition originated from the Prince Consort; the building was designed by Mr. Joseph Paxton, who was knighted for his eminent service.

There were 15,000 exhibitors, and, during the twenty-four weeks that the Exhibition lasted, there were upwards of 6,000,000 visitors to it. There were, on one occasion, 93,000 persons assembled in the building. It was closed by the Prince, October 15th.

The Crystal Palace at Sydenham, built principally from the materials of the Great Exhibition, was commenced in 1852, and opened by the queen, in 1854.

An Industrial Exhibition was opened at Cork, in 1852, and another was opened at Dublin, in 1853, in which year the great American Exhibition at New York, was opened.

In June, 1861, many hundreds of men were engaged in rearing the structure for the Exhibition of 1862; a magnificent building, of gigantic proportions, its cubical contents being 73,000,000 cubic feet. The Exhibition was opened by royal commission on the 1st of May, 1862.

The "Warrior," the first iron-plated steam-ship in the United Kingdom, was launched on the 29th of December, 1860. It cost 350,000*l*.

The repeal of the corn laws (1846), led to a change of ministry. A strong opposition to a Bill for the protection of life in Ireland, compelled Sir Robert Peel to resign. Lord John Russell became premier, and Lord Palmerston secretary of state for foreign affairs. Sir R. Peel was killed by a fall from his horse, in July, 1850.

In 1852, the Earl of Derby succeeded Lord John Russell as premier, and a militia-bill was passed. The Duke of Wellington took part in the discussion on it, and this was the last occasion on which he spoke in public. He died on the 14th of September; and on the 18th of November he was interred, at the public expense, in St. Paul's cathedral. The funeral was of unusual magnificence.

Lord Derby resigned, in consequence of the defeat of the ministerial budget. A coalition ministry was formed, of which the earl of Aberdeen became premier.

The Czar Nicholas resolved on consummating the long premeditated policy of Russia, by subjugating Turkey. His ostensible design was to secure for the Greek Church the protection of the holy places in Palestine, places much resorted to by devotees of the Greek, as well as of the Latin, or Roman

Catholic, Church. The Turkish government, being Mahommedan, take no particular interest in places important only from their real or supposed association with incidents relative to Christ, and the immediate guardianship of the holy places had been given to Latin monks. The monks of the Greek Church claimed prior right to the guardianship. The Porte left the dispute to the monks themselves, and refrained from making a political difficulty out of what appeared a mere sectarian squabble. The Czar determined to support his church, by claiming not only his protection of the holy places, but also virtual sovereignty over all members of the Greek Church in Turkey. These claims were firmly resisted by the Porte. After about six months had been spent in diplomatising, in which France, Great Britain, Austria, and Prussia, had taken active part, a Russian army of 25,000 men, crossed the Pruth, and occupied Moldavia and Wallachia. The occupation of these Danubian provinces (July, 1853,) by Russia, was the actual commencement of the war. The first battle was fought at Oltenitza, on the 3rd and 4th of November. The Russians were defeated by Omar Pacha. The victors were animated to maintain their right, the vanquished were exasperated to persist in their endeavours to gain their object.

An alliance was entered into between England and France, to assist Turkey. The allied fleets had entered Besika bay early in June, but it was not until the 12th of March, 1854, that the treaty of England, France, and Turkey, was signed. On the 22nd of April, Odessa was bombarded by the allied fleet. The battle of the Alma was fought on the 20th of September. The Russians were defeated, and the allies were enabled to take up a favourable position at Balaklava. On the 17th of October, the battle of Balaklava took place. In consequence of an order, either not being well expressed, or not understood, a fine body of cavalry, numbering 607 men, charged the whole Russian army, which was

supported by artillery. Never did men fight more valiantly. For so small a band to gain a victory over such an army, was almost beyond the bounds of possibility. Only 198 men escaped the doom to which they and their gallant comrades unhesitatingly rushed, at the word of command.

The third great battle was that of Inkermann, on the 5th of November,—an anniversary ever to be remembered in English history. Under cover of a dense mist, the Russians, 45,000 strong, attacked the English troops, numbering only 8,000 men. Bravely the English withstood the powerful and furious foe, until they were re-inforced by their allies, the French, when the Russians were signally defeated.

Terrific as was the loss of life by actual warfare, it was insignificant in comparison to the ravages which death made in the ranks of the conflicting nations by the severity of the season, the sickness, and the privations to which the men were, from various causes, subjected.

The war continued the whole of the year 1855. In January, Sardinia joined the allies. Vigorous efforts were made to remedy the evils which had become subjects of public animadversion and discontent, as regarded the management of the war.

The Aberdeen ministry resigned on the 30th of January, 1855, the day after that on which Mr. Roebuck's motion for a "Crimean Committee" was carried in the House of Commons. On the 8th of February, a new ministry, of which Lord Palmerston was premier, was sworn into office, and to the energy of this ministry the country is indebted for the improved state of public affairs which almost immediately ensued.

The death of the Czar Nicholas on the 2nd of March, led to no immediate change of policy on the part of Russia, but the great battle of Tchernaya, on the 16th of August, and the capture of the two chief ports of Sebastopol, the Malakoff and the Great Redan, on the 8th of September, virtually

terminated the war in favour of the allies. Sebastopol, after a siege of forty-nine weeks, was fired by the Russians, who, under Prince Gortschakoff, effected a retreat during the night. leaving the ruined town in the possession of the victors, Prince Gortschakoff, who was born in 1795, died in 1861.

Negotiations for peace were opened very soon after the fall of Sebastopol, and on the 30th of March, 1856, a peace treaty was signed by the belligerent powers. It was agreed that the Christian subjects of the Turkish dominion should be under the protection of all the parties to the peace-treaty, without pre-eminence being ceded to any one power. Russia withdrew her claim to dominion, or even protectorate, over the Danubian principalities; acceded to the demands of the allies, that Sebastopol should not again be fortified; that no armament should be kept in the Black Sea, and that the navigation of the Danube should be free to all nations.

The history of the siege of Sebastopol will ever remain a history of intense interest. It called forth not only consummate military skill, and soldier-like bravery rarely equalled, and never surpassed, but it evoked, also, the finer feelings of humanity in no ordinary degree. The devoted heroism of Miss Florence Nightingale and her companions, will never be forgotten. The world's history affords no such similar instance of female courage, tenderness, and philanthropy. Ladies accustomed to all the comforts and luxuries of peace,—ladies who were almost idolized by their families and friends, and who fully appreciated the endearments of happy homes,—ladies of delicate frame, of sensitive mind, but withal of lion-hearts,—braved the dangers of the ocean, and the still greater dangers of a deadly war, to tend the sick and wounded in the military hospitals which had been established at Scutari.

The alacrity displayed by all classes and parties to subscribe to the Patriotic Fund, for the relief of the widows and orphans of our brave soldiers, was most praiseworthy, as

at that time taxes were heavy, provisions were dear, and trade was dull.

On the 14th of January, 1858, the life of the emperor of the French was attempted by some Italians, who had conspired against him in London, where they had resided as refugees. The emperor and empress were proceeding in state to the opera house at Paris, when hand-grenades of a most destructive power were thrown at their carriage. They escaped injury, but the explosion of the grenades killed five persons, and wounded upwards of sixty others. The two principal conspirators, Orsini and Pieri, were convicted and executed.

The English government introduced a bill into parliament, to "amend the law relating to conspiracy to murder." Had the French been less clamorous against England, it is not improbable that the bill might have passed. As it was, the public considered that to pass the bill would be truckling unworthily to a nation which we should esteem as an ally, but not acknowledge as a superior. The bill was thrown out on the second reading, February 19th, and the ministry resigned. It was succeeded by the Derby-Disraeli administration, so called from the earl of Derby, who was premier, and Mr. Benjamin Disraeli, the chancellor of the exchequer. The property qualification for members of parliament was abolished, and the parliamentary oath was so modified, that members of the Jewish community could take it, and sit in the House of Commons as representatives of the constituencies which returned them.

As the warlike aspect of affairs on the continent at the beginning of the year 1859, did not materially affect the internal politics of England, the ministry resolved to introduce a Reform Bill. They were defeated on it, March 31st. Parliament was dissolved, there was a general election, and the Derby-Disraeli ministry continued in power. On the 10th of June, the House of Commons, by a want-of-confidence vote,

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necessitated the ministers to resign; and Lord Palmerston again became premier.

Towards the end of the summer, a number of builders' workmen were induced to strike for a diminution of the hours of labour. The master-builders refused to be coerced by those in their employ, and one-hundred-and-twenty large building establishments suspended work. Many thousands of workmen were thus thrown out of employ, and they and their families suffered great misery during the winter.

The English government did what it could to save Europe from the horrors of war, but political excitement was so great in almost every country on the continent, that there seemed a possibility that England, however unwilling, might become involved in a war. The defenceless state of the country created alarm, and on the 12th of May, the Secretary of State for War issued a circular inviting the people to form, amongst themselves, rifle corps for the protection of the island in case of invasion. The first actual service by a volunteer rifle corps was on the 7th of August; on that day the queen opened the Glasgow water-works at Loch Katrine, and the Glasgow rifles were Her Majesty's body-guard. In December, 1860, the defensive force of the country had, in about eighteen months, been increased by 150,000 volunteers.

The kingdom of Naples, as well as other Italian states, had, for some years, been in a great political excitement in consequence of the tyranny of their governments. The emperor of the French had been repeatedly called upon by Italian patriots to assist in liberating their country from political bondage. Austria, on the other hand, encouraged the oppressive rulers. This ultimately led to a serious rupture between France and Austria. War ensued, the first actual move in it was the crossing of the Ticino by the Austrians, on April 29th, 1859. Guiseppe Garibaldi, who, ten years previously, had, at the head of a band of brave volunteers, made a vigorous though unsuccessful effort to free Italy, again with

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his volunteers came forward to oppose the Austrians. He defeated them at the battle of Varese, May 24th. They suffered greater, but not more signal, defeats by the French, at Montebello, Majenta, and Solferino. The peace of Villafranca, which was arranged by the emperors of France and Austria, on the 11th of July, terminated the war between the two empires; but the "Italian movement," although impeded for a time, was not stopped.

Public attention was, in 1860, directed mainly to the affairs of Italy. The king of Naples, like his father before him, persisted in his tyranny towards his subjects; he was counselled and cautioned by several of the most powerful European courts, but without any good result. Whilst diplomatists were speculating on what might be the result of the treaty of Villafranca, an incident not unusual led to a political change of vast importance, not only to Italy, but to the rest of Europe also. The Sicilians, goaded to insurrection by the Neapolitan government, received prompt assistance from the heroic Garibaldi, whose endeavours to liberate Italy had been thwarted for a time by the treaty of Villafranca.

Their daring astonished the world. Garibaldi, with a small band of followers, landed at Marsala, in the island of Sicily, on the 11th of May; he announced his intention of liberating Sicily from the tyranny of the king of Naples, and called the people to arms. With enthusiasm they responded, and before the month ended, Garibaldi was master of Palermo. In June, the king of Naples appealed to the five great European powers to assist him against Garibaldi. England was the first to decline, and the other powers followed her example. Garibaldi and his noble cause became every day more popular. Men from almost every country in Europe flocked to his standard. He was successful to an extent which even the most sanguine of his admirers hardly anticipated. He was appointed Dictator of Sicily; and three months after his adventurous landing at Marsala, he advanced to Naples,

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which, without the loss of a man, he entered triumphantly; the king, with 50,000 regular troops, having retired upon Capua and Gaëta. After a short time, he was driven from his dominions; and in 1861, Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia was proclaimed king of Italy, and his title subsequently recognised by the great powers of Europe. The success of the Italians encouraged the Poles, Hungarians, and other oppressed nations, to make attempts for freedom; and thus the continent of Europe was, in 1860 and 1861, in a state of great political excitement, from which the British dominions were free.

By the treaty of Paris, in 1815, the protectorate of the seven Ionian islands was entrusted to Great Britain. When Greece became an independent kingdom, in 1830, some of the Ionians wished that the seven islands should form part of the kingdom. In 1849, advantage was taken of a rising of some peasantry against their masters, to raise an insurrection in favour of annexation to Greece. The insurrection was quelled, but the spirit of discontent survived, and subsequently, upon several occasions, gave our Government considerable trouble.

The election of a president who was known to be favourable to the gradual abolition of slavery, led to serious disturbances in America, in 1861; and, in the following year, the States of America, which formerly were united under a federal government, formed two separate presidencies, which immediately engaged in war against each other.

The British government resolved not to side with either party, but, at the same time, took active measures to provide against a failure in the supply of cotton, which it was apprehended would result from the war. It was the opinion of many that the demand for raw cotton might be supplied by our possessions in India alone, and others believed that by cultivating cotton in our Australian and African colonies, we might be independent of the supply from America. The rapidly-increasing demand for raw cotton in

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this country is astonishing; in 1850, we imported less than 670,000,000lbs. in 1860, more than 1,400,000,000lbs. This is the largest supply on record; its value was nearly 36,000,000*l.*

The year 1860 opened with cheering prospects; a commercial treaty between England and France was signed at Paris, on the 23rd of January. The details of this treaty were arranged chiefly by Mr. Cobden, of free-trade celebrity. Parliament was opened on the 24th of January, and the session lasted till the 28th of August. There was one circumstance which rendered this session particularly remarkable; the House of Commons passed a bill to abolish the excise duty on paper. The bill, after a warm debate, was rejected by the Lords, by a majority of eighty-nine. Since the Revolution, the Lords had never seen fit, or ventured, to reject a bill which had been passed by the Commons for the repeal of a tax or duty, and the event consequently caused considerable discussion. The public considered that such a proceeding on the part of the Lords was unconstitutional, but as its expediency was, on the whole, recognised, it failed to create serious political excitement. Another proof of the freedom of the country from political agitation was that Lord John Russell withdrew, on the 11th of June, the Reform bill which he introduced on the 1st of March, and the expressions of regret which that step occasioned were few and feeble.

After a very protracted parliamentary debate, the paper duty was abolished in 1861.

From the year 1841, the Board of Trade have published a yearly statistical abstract for the United Kingdom; the one for the year 1860 is the most remarkable of the series. It shows that, the strikes and depressions in some branches of trade notwithstanding, the British dominions were never before in so prosperous a condition. We bought and sold, and manufactured, to an extent unprecedented in the annals of history.

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The winter of 1860 was the longest and severest known in Britain since 1814. The 21st of May, 1861, was hotter than any day in 1860, in which year snow fell in Yorkshire in July; the year has been termed one long continued winter. Yet the mortality was below the average, and even agriculture suffered much less than might have been anticipated from the inclemency of the weather.

Of the year 1860 it may be truly said "never was there a year in which there is so little to be described, but in which so much has been done, and such vast progress made." Our revenue amounted to nearly 72,000,000*l.* Although the national debt was upwards of 800,000,000*l.* the charge for its interest was under 27,000,000*l.* whilst in 1846, when the debt was under 793,000,000*l.* its cost to the nation was more than 28,000,000*l.*

1862 was rendered memorable by the second great International Exhibition; which, although it achieved its main object, that of bringing together the works of art and industry, as well as the principal productions, of all nations, to one spot, was not considered so decided a success as its predecessor of 1851, in the absence, by death, of the Prince Consort.

The gloom into which the British court and nation were thrown by the somewhat sudden death of the Prince Consort, on the 14th of December, 1861, had a serious effect upon trade. For more than a twelvemonth, there were neither state drawing-rooms nor levees, and the national mourning was all but universal.

Two important events, however, connected with the royal family, threw a partial break upon the general gloom. The first was the marriage of the princess Alice with Prince Louis of Hesse, in July 1862; and the other the marriage of the Prince of Wales with the Princess Alexandra, of Denmark, on March 10th, 1863. Never, perhaps, had a betrothed princess so hearty, so general, or so splendid a reception, as was accorded to this lady by the British public. Her whole

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progress through London, on the 7th of March, from the Bricklayers' Arms station of the South Eastern Railway to the station of the Great Western Railway at Paddington, from whence she was escorted by rail to Windsor, was a splendid and hearty ovation: the crowd was immense, and such as could only be witnessed in the British metropolis. It is, however, to be regretted that the general illumination which took place on the 10th, in honour of the royal nuptials, was witnessed by such overwhelming crowds of people, that several individuals lost their lives in the dense pressure which was then experienced.

England never held a more honourable position among the nations than she held at this time. Never has she been ruled by a sovereign more deservedly beloved at home and respected abroad; and never has she used her vast power more zealously or more successfully to promote "on earth peace, goodwill towards men."

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THE ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS,

THEIR RELATIONSHIP, AND PROGENY,

FROM WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR TO VICTORIA.

Compiled expressly for Miss Corner's "History of England and Wales,"

BY EDWARD N. MARKS.

WILLIAM I. (the Conqueror), succeeded Harold II. 1066.
Married MATILDA, daughter of Baldwin V. Count of Flanders.
Sons,—Robert, Richard, William, Henry.
Daughters,—Constance, Gundred, Adeliza, Agatha, Cecily, Alice.

WILLIAM II. (Rufus), succeeded his father, 1087.
Died unmarried.

HENRY I. (Beauclerc), succeeded his brother, 1100.
m. 1, MATILDA, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland.
Son,—William, drowned 1120. Daughter,—Matilda.
„ 2, ADELAIS, daughter of Godfrey, 1st Duke of Louvaine.
No Children.

STEPHEN (of Blois), succeeded his uncle, 1135.
MAUD, daughter of Eustace, Earl of Boulogne.
Sons,—three.
Daughters,—two.
} Did not survive their father.

HENRY II. (Curt-hose), succeeded his cousin, 1154.
ELEANOR, daughter of William, 5th Duke of Aquitaine.
Sons,—William, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, Philip, John.
Daughters,—Matilda, Eleanor, Joan.

RICHARD I. (Cœur-de-Lion), succeeded his father, 1189.
BERENGARIA, daughter of Sanchez, King of Navarre.
No Children.

JOHN (Lackland), succeeded his brother, 1199.
1, AVISA, dr. of William, Earl of Gloucester. Divorced.
2, ISABELLA, daughter of Aymer, Count of Angoulême.
Sons,—Henry, Richard.
Daughters,—Joan, Eleanor, Isabella.

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HENRY III. (of Winchester), succeeded his father, 1216.
ELEANOR, daughter of Raymond, Count of Provence.
Sons,—Edward, Edmund, and four others who died young.
Daughters,—Margaret, Beatrice. Katherine.

EDWARD I. (Longshanks), succeeded his father, 1272.
1, ELEANOR, daughter of Ferdinand III. of Castile.
Sons,—Edward, and three who died young.
Daughters,—Joan, Elizabeth, and seven others.
2, Margaret, daughter of Philip III. of France.
Sons,—Thomas, Edmund. Daughter,—Eleanor.

EDWARD II. (of Cærnarvon), succeeded his father, 1307.
ISABELLA, daughter of Philip IV. of France.
Sons,—Edward, John. Daughters,—Joan, Eleanor.

EDWARD III. (of Windsor). succeeded his father, 1327.
PHILIPPA, daughter of William, Earl of Hainault.
Sons,—Edward, Lionel, John, Edmund, Thomas, and two others.
Daughters,—Isabella, Mary, and three others.

RICHARD II. (of Bordeaux), succeeded his grandfather, 1377.
1, ANNE, daughter of Charles IV. Emperor of Germany.
2, ISABELLA, daughter of Charles VI. King of France.
No Children by either wife.

HENRY IV. (of Bolingbroke), succeeded his cousin, 1399.
1, MARY, daughter of Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford.
Sons,—Henry, Thomas, John, Humphrey.
Daughters,—Blanch, Philippa.
2, JOAN, daughter of Charles the Bald, of Navarre.
Children: two, died in infancy.

HENRY V. (of Monmouth), succeeded his father, 1413.
CATHERINE, daughter of Charles VI. of France.
Son,—Henry.

HENRY VI. (of Windsor), succeeded his father, 1422.
MARGARET, daughter of René. Duke of Anjou.
Son,—Edward.

EDWARD IV. (of March), succeeded his cousin, 1461
ELIZABETH, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville.
Sons,—Edward, Richard, George.
Daughters,—Elizabeth, Catherine, and five others.

EDWARD V. succeeded his father, 1483.
Died a violent death, aged 12.

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RICHARD III. (Crookback), succeeded his nephew, 1483.
ANNE, daughter of Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick.
Son,—Edward, (died 1484).

HENRY VII. succeeded Richard III. 1485.
ELIZABETH, daughter of Edward IV. of England.
Sons,—Arthur, Henry, Edmund, Edward.
Daughters,—Margaret, Elizabeth, Mary, Catherine.

HENRY VIII. succeeded his father, 1509.
1, KATHERINE, daughter of Ferdinand V. Arragon. Divorced.
Sons,—Two, died in infancy. Daughter,—Mary.
2, ANNE, d. of Sir Thos. Boleyn. Divorced and beheaded, 1536
Daughter,—Elizabeth.
3, JANE, daughter of Sir John Seymour.
Son,—Edward.
4, ANNE, daughter of John III. Duke of Cleves. Divorced.
5, CATHERINE, daughter of Sir Edmund Howard. Beheaded.
No Children.
6, CATHERINE, daughter of Sir Thomas Parr.
No Children.

EDWARD VI. succeeded his father. 1547. Died unmarried.

MARY, succeeded her brother, 1533.
PHILIP, son of Charles V. Emperor of Germany
No Children.

ELIZABETH, succeeded her sister, 1558. Died unmarried.

JAMES I. succeeded his cousin, 1603.
ANNE, daughter of Frederick II. of Denmark.
Sons,—Henry. Charles. Daughter,—Elizabeth.

CHARLES I. succeeded his father, 1625.
HENRIETTA, daughter of Henry IV. of France.
Sons,—Charles, James, and two others.
Daughters,—Mary, Elizabeth, Anne, Henrietta.

(COMMONWEALTH, and Protectorate.) 1649—1660.

CHARLES II. succeeded his father, 1649,—restored, 1660.
CATHERINE. daughter of John IV. of Portugal.
No Children.

JAMES II. succeeded his brother, 1685.
1, ANNE, daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.
Sons,—four, all died young.
Daughters,—Mary, Anne, and two others who died young.

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JAMES II. *continued.*

2, MARY, daughter of Alphonso d'Este, Duke of Modena.

Sons,—James, and one who died young.

Daughters,—Louisa, and three who died young.

WILLIAM III. succeeded his uncle
and **MARY,** succeeded her father } 1688.

No Children. (Queen Mary died, 1694).

ANNE, succeeded her cousin and brother-in-law, 1702.

GEORGE, son of Frederick III. of Denmark.

Sons,—George, and others who died in infancy.

Daughters,—all died in infancy.

GEORGE I. succeeded his cousin, 1714,

SOPHIA, daughter of George, Duke of Brunswick and Zell.

Sons,—George, Augustus. **Daughter,**—Sophia.

GEORGE II. succeeded his father, 1727.

CAROLINE, dr. of John Frederick, Margrave of Anspach.

Sons,—Frederick, William, George.

Daughters,—Ann, Amelia, Maria, Louisa.

GEORGE III. succeeded his grandfather, 1760.

CHARLOTTE, daughter of George, Grand Duke of Mecklenbourg Strelitz.

Sons,—George, Frederick, William, Edward, Ernest, Augustus, Adolphus, Octavius, Alfred.

Daughters,—Charlotte, Augusta, Elizabeth, Mary, Sophia, Amelia.

GEORGE IV. succeeded his father, 1820.

CAROLINE, daughter of Charles William, Duke of Brunswick.

Daughter,—Charlotte.

WILLIAM IV. succeeded his brother, 1830.

ADELAIDE, daughter of George, Duke of Saxe Meiningen.

Daughters,—two, who died in infancy.

VICTORIA, succeeded her uncle, 1837.

ALBERT, son of Ernest I. Duke of Saxe Cobourg and Gotha.

Sons,—Albert Edward, Alfred, Arthur, Leopold.

Daughters,—Victoria, Alice, Helena, Louisa, Beatrice.

Google

LINEAL DESCENT OF

QUEEN VICTORIA FROM THE FIRST KING OF ENGLAND.

Compiled expressly for Miss Corner's "History of England and Wales,"

BY EDWARD N. MARKS.

Table I. From VICTORIA to EGBERT.

VICTORIA, daughter of
EDWARD, Duke of Kent, son of
GEORGE III. son of
FREDERICK, Prince of Wales, son of
GEORGE II. son of
GEORGE I. son of
SOPHIA, Electress of Hanover, daughter of
ELIZABETH, Electress Palatine, daughter of
JAMES I. son of
MARY, Queen of Scots, daughter of
JAMES V. of Scotland, son of
MARGARET, Queen of Scotland, daughter of
ELIZABETH (of York) Queen of England, daughter of
EDWARD IV. son of
RICHARD, Duke of York, son of
ANNE, daughter of
ROGER, Earl of March, son of
PHILIPPA, daughter of
LIONEL, Duke of Clarence, son of
EDWARD III. son of
EDWARD II. son of
EDWARD I. son of
HENRY III. son of
JOHN, son of
HENRY II. son of
MAUD, (Empress), daughter of
MAUD, (or Matilda), daughter of
MARGARET, daughter of
EDWARD "the Outlaw," son of
EDMUND II. (Ironsides), son of
ETHELRED II. son of
EDGAR, son of
EDMUND I. son of
EDWARD (the Elder), son of
ALFRED (the Great), son of
ETHELWULF, son of
EGBERT, the First King of England.

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Table II. From EGBERT to VICTORIA.

EGBERT
|
ETHELWULF
| I.
ALFRED
|
EDWARD (the Elder)
| II.
EDMUND I.
| III.
EDGAR
| IV.
ETHELRED II.
| V.
EDMUND II.
|
EDWARD (the Outlaw)
|
MARGARET
|
MAUD
|
MAUD (Empress)
|
HENRY II.
| VI.
JOHN
|
HENRY III.
|
EDWARD I.
|
EDWARD II.
|
EDWARD III.
|_ VII.

LIONEL
|
PHILIPPA
|
ROGER
|
ANNE
|
RICHARD
|
EDWARD IV.
| VIII.
ELIZABETH
|
MARGARET
|
JAMES V. (Scotland)
|
MARY (Queen of Scots.)
|
JAMES I.
| IX.
ELIZABETH
|
SOPHIA
|
GEORGE I.
|
GEORGE II.
|
FREDERICK
|
GEORGE III.
| X
EDWARD
|
VICTORIA, the *thirty-fifth* sovereign of England since the Conquest, is the *thirty-sixth* in lineal descent from the first monarch of England. She commenced her glorious reign in the *thirty-seventh* year of the present century.

* The Roman Figures refer to Table III.

Table III.

SOVEREIGNS NOT RECKONED IN THE LINEAL DESCENT.

I. (3) between ETHELWULF and ALFRED,—
ETHELBALD,
ETHELBERT,
ETHELRED I.
} elder brothers of Alfred.

II. (1) between EDWARD THE ELDER and EDMUND I.—
ATHELSTAN, elder brother of Edmund I.

III. (2) between EDMUND I. and EDGAR.
EDRED, younger brother of Edmund I.
EDWY, elder brother of Edgar.

IV. (1) between EDGAR and ETHELRED II.—
EDWARD II. (the Martyr) son of Edgar.

V. (9) between EDMUND II. and HENRY II.
CANUTE, son of Sweyn, King of Denmark, who usurped the throne during the reign of Ethelred II.
HAROLD I. (Harefoot),
HARDICANUTE,
} sons of Canute.
EDWARD THE CONFESSOR, son of Ethelred II.
HAROLD II. grandson of Canute. (His mother was Gita, sister to Harold I. and Hardicanute. She married Earl Godwin.
WILLIAM I. THE CONQUEROR. His grand-daughter, Maud, was mother of Henry II.
WILLIAM II.
HENRY I.
} Sons of William I.
STEPHEN, grandson of William I. (His mother was Adela, sister to William II. and Henry I. She married Eustace, Count of Blois.)

VI. (1) between HENRY II. and JOHN.—
RICHARD I. elder brother of John.

VII. (4) between EDWARD III. and EDWARD IV.—
RICHARD II. grandson of Edward III. (His father was Edward, the Black Prince.)
HENRY IV. grandson of Edward III. (His father was John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.)
HENRY V. son of Henry IV.
HENRY VI. son of Henry V.

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VIII. (7) between EDWARD IV. and JAMES I.
EDWARD V. son of Edward IV.
RICHARD III. brother to Edward III.
HENRY VII. Married the daughter of Edward IV. *a*
HENRY VIII. son of Henry VII.
MARY, ELIZABETH, } daughters of Henry VIII.

IX. (5) between JAMES II. and GEORGE I.
CHARLES 1. son of James I. *b*.
CHARLES II. JAMES II. } sons of Charles I.
WILLIAM grandson of Charles I.
and MARY, daughter of James II.
ANNE, daughter of James II.

X. (2) between GEORGE III. and VICTORIA.
GEORGE IV. WILLIAM IV. } elder brothers of Edward, Duke of Kent, father of QUEEN VICTORIA.

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a She was the lawful heir to the throne. The best title of Henry VII. to the throne, was his election. His *conquest* was the result of his election. He conquered Richard III., not England.

b James I. was the great-grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York. Margaret married James IV. of Scotland, who was killed at the battle of Flodden, 1513.

Elizabeth, daughter of James I., married Frederick, king of Bohemia: Sophia, the youngest daughter, and only surviving issue of the marriage, became heir to the English throne by the Act of Settlement, in 1700. She died in 1713.

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